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Social Services in Britain



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Social Services in Britain



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INTRODUCTION

THE BRITISH social services cover a wide range of provisions to promote the health and well-being of the people of Britain and to improve the surroundings in which they live. The underlying motive is the recognition that the community as a whole has a responsibility both to help its weaker and less fortunate members and to seek to secure for all the citizens those services which they cannot provide by themselves as individuals.

To give a fuller picture of the provisions that exist to promote social welfare, this pamphlet outlines¹ not only the activities most commonly referred to as 'the social services'—social security, health services, the care of the old, the disabled, and children lacking families, together with education, housing and town and country planning—but also the facilities for promoting good working conditions and helping people to get work, the treatment of offenders against the law, and the provision of legal aid and advice to citizens without the financial means to defend themselves in court or obtain justice.

Nearly all the services now in being were pioneered by voluntary organisations, especially the Churches, and many voluntary services still surround and supplement those publicly and statutorily provided. The two types are not competitive but complementary, and merge into each other. Public authorities often work through voluntary authorities specially adapted to serve individual needs, and officials co-operate with the workers of the many social service societies.

The administration of the public services normally takes one of two forms. First, there are services provided directly through central Government departments which make local contact with individuals through a network of local offices. Such are the employment and social security services which pertain to the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance and the National Assistance Board in Great Britain, and the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance and the Northern Ireland National Assistance Board in Northern Ireland. (Northern Ireland has its own separate Parliament and Ministries for domestic affairs.) Second, there are services which are administered on a local basis by local authorities² but the ultimate responsibility for them rests with central Government departments. These are education, health and welfare, housing and town and country planning, and the welfare of children lacking family care, which are the concern in England and Wales of the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Housing and Local Government and Home Office respectively, in Scotland of the Scottish Office, and in Northern Ireland of the appropriate Northern Ireland Ministries. In addition, the treatment of offenders is a responsibility of the Home Office, Scottish Office and Northern Ireland Ministry of Home Affairs who are responsible also for the various institutions to which offenders may be sent. In every case ultimate responsibility

¹For more detailed information, see the COI reference pamphlets describing individual services.

²Or specially constituted local committees, boards or councils.

rests with a Minister who is answerable in the appropriate Parliament, and only Parliament can give authority to undertake any new service.

Although Britain has such a range of services to promote social welfare, it is recognised that the task is never completed. Some problems remain to be solved and new ones are constantly emerging. Economic conditions can retard or facilitate expansion and improvement of the services and the very successes achieved in preserving life and raising standards lead to further pressures on health, housing, education and other services. Argument and discussion continue as to what are the best ways of organising and financing the services described in this pamphlet, and how they need to be adapted to meet the developing needs of the people of Britain.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOCIAL SERVICES

THE EARLIEST social services in Britain were provided by various religious orders, augmented in medieval times by the manor houses and merchant and craft guilds, which took upon themselves as part of their duties and responsibilities the care of the sick and the destitute. This custom fell into disuse with the decay of the feudal system and the dissolution of the monasteries. By the end of the sixteenth century it had become imperative to find some substitute for the old system. In 1601, therefore, the Poor Law Act was passed, which made it incumbent upon the local authorities in England and Wales to provide from local rates for the sick, the needy and the homeless. A similar Act had been passed in Scotland in 1579. Thus was established the principle that the care of the poor was a necessary part of the social organisation of the State.

The treatment of offenders was recognised as a function of the State comparatively early and became increasingly so, after the Norman Conquest, when the authority of the State became more and more concentrated in the hands of the King. As it was accepted that crimes were committed against the sovereign and the community, punishment came to be based less on the principle of restitution than of providing a deterrent to crime. From Tudor times minor offences were punished with fines, flogging and public humiliation in the stocks or the pillory; more serious crimes were punishable by death (transportation overseas was added as an alternative from the seventeenth century).

The greatest contribution to the social services during the next 200 years came not from the State but from private sources. The eighteenth century, while witnessing a striking evolution in scientific and social outlook, leading to the birth of humanitarianism in politics, was remarkable more for the achievements of philanthropists and evangelists than for any measures of State-inspired reform.

During the eighteenth century—between 1720 and 1750—11 of London's great voluntary hospitals were founded, as well as 37 in the provinces and 9 in Scotland. In education, the charity schools, established mainly through the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, did some excellent work; while the Sunday schools, founded in 1780, began their fight against illiteracy by teaching reading, writing and sometimes 'ciphering'; in preventive medicine—men such as Dr. Richard Mead, Dr. John Pringle and Dr. James Lind—succeeded in bringing about much-needed sanitary reforms in the navy, the army, and to a lesser extent in industrial undertakings. The early prison reformers, John Howard and Elizabeth Fry, sought to better conditions in the jails, where prisoners were held awaiting execution or transportation, and William Tuke was experimenting with the care of the mentally ill at The Retreat, York, by gentle methods without the forcible constraint generally applied to the unfortunates locked up in 'madhouses'—when they were not left to fend for themselves or rely on the Poor Law.

The Industrial Revolution and After

The urban and industrial development of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries exacerbated old problems and created new ones. The Poor Law, progressive in its day, was becoming increasingly inadequate to relieve economic distress. Help was provided by this time mainly through maintenance in the workhouses ('poor houses' in Scotland) where old and young, sick and well, were all mixed together. Only for old soldiers and sailors was there maintenance among their own kind and with some dignity in the two 'hospitals'¹ founded by Royal charity in the seventeenth century or in their own homes by means of 'out-pensions' from the hospital authorities. The workhouses were administered on the principle, enunciated in 1834, of 'less eligibility', that is, that the standard of accommodation and nourishment must be poorer than that of the meanest independent person, so as to discourage wilful idleness. It was not yet appreciated how far unemployment could be due to economic forces beyond an individual's control. The efforts of isolated men and women outraged by the effect of conditions in mines and factories and in the fast-growing industrial towns on the people who lived and worked there had to overcome both selfish interests and suspicion, on principle, of State interference, before community action to improve matters became possible.

In some matters, notably those connected with industrial health and welfare, the State accepted a measure of responsibility at a comparatively early stage, so that voluntary provision became supplementary, and subject to a certain amount of statutory control. In others, such as education and, later, maternity and child welfare, the State and private organisations continued for years as equal or almost equal partners. The law gave local authorities power to organise and operate services, but it did not compel them to do so, and as a general rule voluntary associations were given every encouragement, including grants from the public purse, to carry on their work.

An Act of 1802 marked the beginning of factory legislation, and in 1833 the first substantial Factory Act was passed. This Act limited hours of work for children and set up a national system of inspection. The Act of 1847 set a maximum of ten hours a day on women's as well as children's work; meanwhile the Act of 1844 had introduced the first safety measures. (The scope of all these early Acts was limited to certain factories, mainly textile.) The first Workmen's Compensation Act, making the payment of compensation for accidents at work compulsory and an employer's liability, was passed in 1897.

The early Factory Acts had prescribed for employed children a certain minimum number of hours' education each week. Successive Acts increased this minimum until it was no longer necessary in view of the raising of the age limit below which employment was illegal and the introduction of compulsory education. The State began to take an active part in education in England and Wales in 1870, when the Elementary Education Act provided for the setting-up of schools in areas where the voluntary societies, which had been receiving State grants since 1833, had not already established them. By the end of the

¹Chelsea Hospital for old soldiers. Greenwich Hospital for old sailors.

century when, in 1899, the Board of Education was created, elementary education had become compulsory, and available free of charge to every child.

Environmental health services were comparatively early recognised as matters for official action. The first true sanitary measure, the Public Health Act, was passed in 1848. In the personal health services, on the other hand, voluntary provision remained very important until the establishment of the National Health Service after the second world war. Until then, voluntary hospitals under their own management existed side by side with municipal hospitals under the local authorities, both types making their own distinctive contributions to the welfare of the community as a whole.

In the sphere of housing, State intervention did not begin until 1852 when legislation was passed to permit local authorities to provide lodging-houses for working men and inspect existing ones. The power was permissive only and local authorities were slow to act. The first effective Housing Act authorising local authorities to provide housing at modest rents to supplement that produced by private enterprise was in 1890; it followed weaker measures under which some enterprising authorities had set the example, as in Birmingham's slum clearance drive in the 1870s–1880s which halved the death-rate in the area rebuilt.

A landmark in the treatment of offenders in the nineteenth century was the report, published in 1895, of a committee under Herbert, later Lord, Gladstone, which found that although administrative reforms had made prisons more efficiently run and conditions in them more healthy, the punitive regime there did not reform the prisoners but released them brutalised and embittered. The committee recommended that reformation and deterrence should in future be treated as 'primary and concurrent objects'. Its detailed suggestions, including greater differentiation between the needs of different ages and types of offender, and the initiation while offenders were still in prison of aid to their families and preparation for after-care, were embodied in the Prison Act of 1898.

From this time dates the formation of the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and the growth of small homes for orphans maintained by voluntary bodies, in which connection Dr. Barnardo's is the most famous name. Conditions in these homes contrasted favourably with those in the large institutions in which the Poor Law authorities cared for orphans, generally unsegregated from other inmates.

An important feature of activity towards the end of the century in which the voluntary organisations led the way was the growth on the one hand of conscious recording and analysis of social conditions,¹ leading to sociological studies and political policies based on systematic observation of facts, and on the other of a more systematic approach to voluntary work for people in distress which fostered better administrative organisation of voluntary bodies and the emergence of social work professions² with specialised skills that can be acquired with training.

¹For example Charles Booth's classic survey of London conditions in *Life and Labour of the People* was published in 1889.

²For example, the first almoner was appointed in 1895; she had been trained by the Charity Organisation Society.

The Early Part of the Twentieth Century

Even before the first world war, the idea was emerging that social services should not be regarded as a form of charity, but rather as one of the natural benefits available to the citizens of a civilised State, ranking equally with defence, justice, law and order. From these years date the provision of employment exchanges (first opened in 1910) to help workers to find jobs; an old age pension scheme financed from central Government funds, under the 1908 Act, free of the personal indignities of the Poor Law;¹ and an insurance scheme under the National Insurance Act of 1911, providing money payments during sickness or unemployment as of right in return for contributions (limited though it was at first to a small proportion of the employed population). The foundations of the present probation service were laid by the Probation of Offenders Act, 1907, which enabled payments to be made from public funds to the voluntary 'court missionaries', and the concept of juvenile courts for young offenders was introduced by the Children Act, 1908, which required magistrates to arrange special sessions for the hearing of cases concerned with young people under 16 years.

Stimulated by the experiences of the first world war, which like all wars aggravated existing social problems and created new ones, the State increased its powers and pushed ahead with the development of services to promote health and welfare. During the 1920s and 1930s State support for the maternity and infant welfare services began to make itself felt, beginning with services under the Maternity and Child Welfare Act, 1918, which gave local authorities power to provide clinics and similar services. About this period day nurseries and nursery classes were being established for children under the statutory school age, so that children whose mothers were for one reason or another unable to look after them need not suffer from neglect; special schools were being set up for handicapped children, to enable them to make the best of their abilities; the school medical services were being expanded and the provision of free milk and meals in schools was growing so that children whose parents were unable to provide for them in these ways should not be deprived of the medical attention and nourishment necessary to their age. Finally efforts were being made to improve the State elementary and secondary schools, and to provide some sort of further education for young people obliged to leave school at an early age. The Education Act of 1918 raised the upper age of compulsory attendance at school to the end of the term in which the pupil reached his fourteenth birthday; and it charged the local education authorities with the duty of providing advanced instruction and practical training for older children in senior departments or central schools. Also in 1918 came official recognition of the need for youth work,² already pioneered by boys' and girls' clubs and other youth movements in the nineteenth century.

Nor was it only the younger generation which benefited from the post-war awareness of the need for the promotion of health and welfare services by the

¹The Royal Commission on the Poor Law which reported in 1909 severely criticised the Poor Law system and some of its members recommended its abolition.

²State-aided help to young people in starting employment had come earlier when the Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910, gave local authorities powers to advise young people under 17 on choosing careers.

State. Between 1919 and 1939, the State, through the local authorities, assumed additional and specific responsibilities (either directly, or indirectly, by financial help to voluntary bodies) for the care of the blind, the disabled and the chronically unfit. Steps were taken to deal more effectively and humanely with socially significant diseases, such as mental disorder or deficiency, tuberculosis, and the venereal diseases. Advances made in curative services such as these were matched by developments in the preventive and general services. The whole question of working conditions in factories came under review, and in 1937 a new Factory Act was passed to raise the health, safety and welfare standards. Miners' welfare services were inaugurated on a national scale, while some of the larger commercial companies began to extend their own welfare services and to create new ones; for example, the practice of appointing full-time or part-time doctors and nurses for supervisory duties in factories and workshops began to be much more widely adopted. Between 1919 and 1939, local authorities acquired new powers to provide or promote the provision of housing and a start was made with slum clearance and the alleviation and prevention of overcrowding. The scope and variety of provision for the destitute, outside the Poor Law, rapidly increased. By the outbreak of the second world war in 1939 the social insurance and allied services in Britain comprised: pensions based on need, for the old and the blind (if over 40); unemployment and health insurance and a contributory old-age, widows' and orphans' pension scheme for most manual workers and some non-manual workers; and payments, dependent on need but from central Government funds, to the long unemployed. The war pensions code had been revised in the course of the first world war to provide pensions for the disabled (based on their physical or mental disablement, even if they retained their earning power), and for war widows and orphans, paid by a specially created Government department.

None of these services was imposed by the State upon an unwilling public. All of them were the result of co-operative effort by the successive Governments and the people whom they governed. As the new State services were set up, there was no attempt to destroy the spirit of voluntary service which had inspired many of them. Where voluntary organisations were doing good work, they were encouraged to continue, whether it was in school, hospital, or factory, or in the provision of houses. It became the function of the State to supplement the services and provide financial assistance, to see that they were brought within the reach of every citizen, to ensure that adequate standards were maintained, and to hold a balance so that the needs of everyone should be considered and as far as possible should be met.

From the Second World War to the Present Time

The system of social services which had been achieved by 1939 was good by the standards of its time but it was not comprehensive and there were inadequacies. Like most British institutions, they had grown up at different speeds and with different patterns—the impetus came from some pressing need or some visionary idea rather than a set plan. Then, from 1939 to 1945, for the second time within 30 years the unsettled and peculiar conditions of a war-time existence focused attention upon the weaknesses and gaps in the existing system. The problems of evacuation showed, for instance, that there

were considerable inequalities between some of the medical services provided in the towns and in the country, and that many country places were still inadequately served. The call-up of young men into the Services showed that, in spite of progress since the first world war, there was still much to be desired in the standard of their physical fitness and of their intellectual attainments, and that the need to raise the school-leaving age and to provide further education as well as extra opportunities for physical training was an imperative one. The six years' standstill in house-building accompanied by the destructive effect of air bombardment swept away the good effects of the pre-war campaign against the slums and overcrowding, and left behind it a shortage of housing accommodation unequalled after the first world war.

Before the second world war came to an end in 1945, plans were already being made for post-war reconstruction. A series of Acts, beginning in 1944, provided the framework for better and more comprehensive services on which the current provision still rests.

A new Education Act (1944) was passed, raising the school-leaving age to 15 (effective April 1947), with provision for a subsequent advance to 16.

The Family Allowances Act, 1945 (effective August 1946), the National Insurance Act, 1946 (fully effective 5th July, 1948), and the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946 (effective 5th July, 1948), were all based on the proposals in the Beveridge Report,¹ published in the middle of the war, which recommended the entire re-shaping of social security provision on a new universal basis.

The provisions of the pre-war legislation on housing and slum clearance were revised by the Housing Act, 1949, 'to take account of the housing conditions and needs of all members of the community'. The National Health Service Act, 1946, and the National Health Service (Scotland) Act, 1947 (also effective 5th July, 1948), established the machinery for operating a comprehensive National Health Service available to all citizens whatever their means. The New Towns Act, 1946, the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1947 (effective 1st July, 1948), created the legal framework for rebuilding Britain in a rational and ordered way. The National Assistance Act, 1948, removed the last traces of the old Poor Law by providing that anyone in need should be assisted out of central Government funds under a national scheme of assistance, while the Children Act, 1948, provided for better care and a more equal chance in life for the child who lacks normal parental care. These Acts also took effect on 5th July, 1948.

The present system of treating offenders in Britain rests largely on the provisions of the Criminal Justice Act, 1948, and the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act, 1949, which included provisions abolishing sentences of penal servitude, and hard labour,² and embodied the principle that for offenders who could not be dealt with outside prison, for example by probation, the aim of their treatment should be as far as possible reformation and restoration to normal life. In 1949 legislation was passed which widened and reorganised the existing arrangements for free legal assistance to people of limited means.

¹*Social Insurance and Allied Services*, Cmd. 6404, HMSO, 1942.

²It also restricted the use of corporal punishment to cases of mutiny in prisons or gross personal violence inflicted on a prison officer in specified circumstances.

This series of measures, begun under the wartime coalition Government, was largely based on agreement between all the parties about the better Britain they wanted to see after the war, and embodied ideas formulated by people of various shades of political opinion. In the planning of the revised and expanded services account was also taken of the findings of a growing volume of specialised social studies. Rowntree's *Poverty and Progress*, an analysis of the extent of poverty in York in 1936, is an example of an independent survey, and the overcrowding survey undertaken by local authorities in 1936 is an example of an official fact-finding inquiry.

Since the broad pattern of the current social services was laid down in the 1940s they have not remained static. The Education Acts, 1946 to 1959, clarified and extended certain parts of the 1944 Act. The rates of social security benefits have been several times increased and the National Insurance Act, 1959, introduced a new scheme for graduated retirement pensions. The legal basis of provision for the mentally disordered has been brought up to date by the Mental Health Act, 1959, and the Mental Health (Scotland) Act, 1960. Extensive building programmes have been launched to provide the new or improved accommodation needed for modern developments in the education, health and welfare services and for the increasingly varied and differentiated establishments for the treatment of different kinds of offenders against the law.

The study of social problems and social conditions and research into the causes and prevention of crime continues and helps to inform public opinion and assist planners. Bodies undertaking or commissioning social research include Government departments, the universities, and independent trusts, such as the Nuffield Foundation, the National Institute of Economic and Social Research, the Acton Trust and Political and Economic Planning (PEP).

That the social services are widely used and appreciated by the people of Britain in meeting the different needs of life is illustrated by the findings of a survey conducted by PEP among families¹ of varying size and social class.² Between 1948 and 1957 99 per cent of the families had made use of the National Health Service, 84 per cent of National Insurance, 74 per cent of publicly provided education, and 61 per cent of family allowances.

¹With dependent children.

²*Family Needs and the Social Services*—Allen and Unwin, 1961.

SOCIAL SECURITY¹

NATIONAL INSURANCE, Industrial Injuries Insurance, Family Allowances and National Assistance together with (in a special category) War Pensions, constitute a comprehensive system of social security in the United Kingdom which ensures that in no circumstances need any one fall below a certain minimum standard of living.²

Administrative Authorities

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance administers the first three of these services in Great Britain; in Northern Ireland they are administered by the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance. National Assistance is administered by the National Assistance Board in Great Britain, and in Northern Ireland by the National Assistance Board for Northern Ireland. Pensions and welfare services for war pensioners and their dependants are the responsibility of the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance throughout the United Kingdom.

Appeals relating to claims for insurance benefits, family allowances or war pensions, or to applications for assistance, are not decided by the Ministry or the Board but by independent authorities appointed under the Acts.

The total expenditure on social security, including those schemes to which insured persons and employers contribute, was at the rate of about £1,650 million a year in 1962.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES

Family allowances have been provided by the State since August 1946, under the Family Allowances Act, 1945, in Great Britain and by the Family Allowances Act (Northern Ireland), 1945, in Northern Ireland. Nearly 6 million allowances are being paid in Great Britain to about $3\frac{3}{4}$ million families with two or more children and over a quarter of a million in Northern Ireland to over 116,000 families. An allowance is paid for each child other than the first or only child below the age limits. The age limits are 15 years for children who leave school at that age, 16 years for certain incapacitated children, and 18 for children who remain at school or are apprentices. The rate of the allowance is 8s. a week for the second child below the age limits and 10s. a week for the third and each subsequent child.

Family allowances are paid from the Exchequer and their object is to benefit the family as a whole; they belong to the mother, but may be paid

¹For fuller information, see COI reference pamphlet R.F.P. 5455, *Social Security in Britain*.

²Family allowances and national insurance benefits or allowances, other than maternity, unemployment or sickness benefit, are included in the taxable income on which income tax is assessed. On the other hand, various income tax reliefs and exemptions are allowed on account of age or liability for the support of dependants. War disablement pensions are not taxable.

either to the mother or to the father. There is no insurance qualification for title to the allowances, but there are certain residence conditions.

The corresponding scheme in Northern Ireland makes similar provision for family allowances.

NATIONAL INSURANCE

The National Insurance Act, 1946, came into full operation on the 5th July, 1948. It has been amended by a number of subsequent Acts, the latest being the National Insurance Act, 1963. The Acts apply, in general, to everyone over school-leaving age living in Great Britain. There are similar schemes in Northern Ireland and the Isle of Man.

The National Insurance scheme provides benefits in specified contingencies to insured persons who have paid the required contributions. The benefits are paid for partly by insured persons' contributions, partly by the contributions of employers in respect of their employees, and partly by a contribution made by the Exchequer out of general taxation. Up to April 1961 the rates of contributions and benefits were standard amounts varying only with the sex and insurance class of the insured person (with lower rates for those under 18). In April 1961 the scheme was modified by the introduction of the graduated scheme. This applies to all adult employed persons earning a minimum of £9 a week and not 'contracted out' of the graduated scheme and provides for them to earn additions to flat-rate retirement pension (but not to any other benefit) in return for graduated contributions, related to earnings, paid normally in addition to the flat-rate contribution. Employees whose job provides them with a secure occupational pension at least as good as the maximum State-graduated pension can be 'contracted out' of the scheme by their employers. About 4½ million have been contracted out.

The Insured Population

The National Insurance scheme applies, in general, to everyone over school-leaving age and under pensionable age. Contributors are divided into three classes:

Class 1.—Employed persons: Those who work for an employer under a contract of service or are paid apprentices—nearly 23 million. This class falls into two groups: those who are, and those who are not, participating in the graduated part of the scheme.

Class 2.—Self-employed persons: Those in business on their own account and others who are working for gain but do not work under the control of an employer—nearly 1½ million.

Class 3.—Non-employed persons: All persons insured who are not in Class 1 or 2—just over a quarter of a million.

This general classification is subject to certain modifications to meet special circumstances. Married women engaged only in their own household duties are, in general, provided for by their husbands' insurance and need not pay contributions. Employed married women may choose whether to pay

separate contributions themselves or to rely on the cover provided by their husbands' contributions, which make them eligible for maternity and home confinement grants, retirement pension at lower rate, widow's benefit and death grant, but they must pay graduated contributions if they are employed in a participating employment and their earnings are over £9 a week. Students receiving full-time education and unpaid apprentices need not pay contributions. Self-employed and non-employed persons whose income is not more than £208 a year can apply to be exempted from liability to pay contributions.

Contributions

Flat-rate contributions are paid by all three classes. The Table on p. 13 shows the main weekly rates of these contributions (including the National Health Service contribution, which for convenience is paid with it though the two services are separately administered). The rates were last increased in June 1963. The table also shows the range of graduated contributions payable. Employed persons aged 18 or over (unless they have 'contracted out') who earn more than £9 a week pay graduated contributions in addition, at the rate of about $4\frac{1}{4}$ per cent of that part of their weekly pay between £9 and £18. The employer pays the same amount. The graduated contributions are collected through the same machinery as is used to collect Pay As You Earn (deduction at source) income tax. Contributions are usually 'credited' for weeks of unemployment, sickness or injury, or if widow's benefit is being paid.

An insured person ceases to be liable for national insurance contributions at the age of 70 for men, 65 for women, or when he retires, or is deemed to have retired, from regular employment after reaching minimum pension age (65 for men, 60 for women), whichever is the earlier. If such a person does any work as an employed person thereafter, he must pay an industrial injuries contribution; his employer's liability remains the same as shown in the table on p. 13.

Benefits

The scheme provides payments to contributors in case of unemployment (if normally working for an employer), sickness (if normally working for an employer or self-employed), and confinement and the weeks immediately before and after (for women normally working for an employer or self-employed and paying national insurance contributions at the full rate). Retirement pensions are paid to people who have reached 65 (60 for women) and who, if under 70 (65 for women), have retired from regular work; widows receive benefit in the first 13 weeks after bereavement and subsequently while they have young children or if they have reached the age of 50 when widowed or when their children have grown up; and there are two kinds of allowance in respect of orphan children where a widow's pension is not payable. The scheme also provides lump-sum cash grants for three expensive contingencies—the birth of a child, a confinement at home (or elsewhere, otherwise than at public expense), and a death (though not for the death of someone already over minimum pension age when the scheme started).

WEEKLY NATIONAL INSURANCE AND NATIONAL HEALTH
SERVICE CONTRIBUTIONS*

	National Insur- ance flat rate†	Graduated Contribution		Health Service	Totals	
		from	to		from	to
<i>Class 1</i>	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Employed persons in the graduated pension scheme:						
Paid by employee ..	8 11½	1	7 8	2 8½	11 9	19 4
Paid by employer ..	9 0½	1	7 8	7½	9 9	17 4
TOTALS ..	18 0	2	15 4	3 4	21 6	36 8
Employed persons con- tracted out:					s. d.	
Paid by employee ..	11 4½			2 8½	14 1	
Paid by employer ..	11 5½			7½	12 1	
TOTALS ..	22 10			3 4	26 2	
<i>Class 2</i>						
Self-employed persons ..	13 4			2 10	16 2	
<i>Class 3</i>						
Non-employed persons ..	10 2			2 10	13 0	

*The rates given are those paid by men. Women, and boys and girls under 18 years of age, contribute at various lower rates.
†Including, for Class 1, the industrial injuries insurance contributions of 8d. from employee and 9d. from employer.

For most of the benefits there are two contribution conditions. First, before benefit can be paid at all, a minimum number of contributions must actually have been paid since entry into insurance; secondly, the full rate of benefit cannot be paid unless a specified number of contributions have been paid or ‘credited’ over a specified period. There are special rules to help a widow who does not become entitled to a widow’s pension at widowhood or when her children have grown up, to qualify for sickness or unemployment benefit in the period before she can have established or re-established herself in insurance through her own contributions; there are also provisions to help divorced women who were not paying contributions during their marriage.

Amounts

The basic standard rate of the majority of benefits is £3 7s. 6d. a week for men and women alike, which may be reduced if insufficient contributions

have been paid, but is not affected by other unearned income or the previous level of earnings; earnings made while the benefit is in payment, however, may cause its reduction or withdrawal. Exceptions to the basic standard rate are the higher rate of £4 15s. a week payable to widows, without regard to any earnings, during the first 13 weeks after bereavement, the increased retirement pension payable to someone who has continued at work beyond minimum pension age, and the lower rate of £2 6s. a week unemployment or sickness benefit payable to a married woman who is not either separated from her husband and unsupported by him or else maintaining an invalid husband. The standard rate of retirement pension for a woman on her husband's insurance is £2 1s. 6d. a week. Standard increases are payable for dependants at the rate of £2 1s. 6d. for an adult (generally a wife), £1 for the first or only child under the family allowances age limits and 12s., over and above any family allowances payable, for other children. However, the amounts payable to widows for their children are appreciably larger: £1 10s. for the first or only child and £1 2s. for others.

Graduated contributions add 6d. a week to retirement pension for each £7 10s. of graduated contributions paid by a man, with the matching £7 10s. paid by his employer, and for each £9 paid by a woman, with the matching £9 paid by her employer.

A guardian's allowance of £1 17s. 6d. a week is provided for a child who has lost both parents (one of whom must have been insured under the National Insurance Acts). It is paid to the person in whose family a child is, for the time being, included. For certain fatherless children there is a child's special allowance; this is payable to a woman whose marriage has been dissolved or annulled and who has not remarried, if her former husband dies and she has a child to whose support he was contributing before he died. The weekly rate of the allowance is £1 10s. for the first or only child and £1 2s. for each other child.

The rates of grants are varied: £16 maternity grant is payable for a confinement and a further £16 grant for each additional child born at the same confinement living 12 hours after its birth; £6 is paid for a confinement at home or elsewhere other than at public expense; and £25 death grant on the death of an adult (less for a child, or for an adult who was within 10 years of minimum pension age when the scheme started).

All these amounts include increases made since the scheme came into operation; the last benefit increases were in the spring of 1963.

Duration

In general, National Insurance payments are paid as long as the situation requiring them lasts. However, sickness benefit cannot be paid for more than a year if less than 156 contributions have been paid (possible within three years for a contributor continuously at work) and unemployment benefit is payable in the first instance for 30 weeks, after which it may be continued for up to 19 months in all, according to the person's record of contributions paid as against unemployment benefit drawn in recent years. Maternity allowance begins 11 weeks before the expected week of confinement and ends after the sixth week following the expected week or the actual confinement if this is later.

Similarly, widowed mother's allowances at the full rate cease when the children reach family allowance age limits, though a mother can continue to receive £3 7s. 6d. a week for herself while she has living with her a son or daughter above the age limits but under 18. The widow's pension payable to the childless widow, provided she is over 50 (and had been married at least three years when her husband died), and the similar pension normally paid to the widowed mother who has reached 50 when her widowed mother's allowance ends, continue until she has reached minimum pension age and retired, or at most till age 65. If she has satisfied the conditions she then becomes entitled to a retirement pension.

INDUSTRIAL INJURIES INSURANCE

The Industrial Injuries Insurance scheme, which, in July 1948, replaced the Workmen's Compensation scheme (first introduced by the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1897), provides benefits for personal injuries caused by accidents arising out of, and in the course of, employment, and for prescribed diseases due to the nature of employment. It covers practically everyone in Class 1 of the National Insurance scheme and certain others. Like the National Insurance scheme, the Industrial Injuries scheme is financed partly from contributions (see table on p. 13) and partly from taxation. The relevant Acts are the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Acts, 1946 to 1963. Similar cover against industrial injuries and diseases in Northern Ireland is provided by the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Acts (Northern Ireland), 1946 to 1963.

Benefits

Injury Benefit

Injury benefit for an adult is £5 15s. a week plus £2 1s. 6d. for an adult dependant and £1 for the first or only child under the family allowances age limits and 12s. for each other eligible child, in addition to any family allowance payable. It is paid when the insured person is incapable of work as a result of an industrial accident or prescribed disease, and payment can continue for a maximum of 26 weeks beginning on the date of the accident or development of the disease.

Disablement Benefit

Disablement benefit may be paid (but not at the same time as injury benefit) when, as the result of industrial accident or prescribed disease, there is a loss of physical or mental faculty. The amount depends on the extent of the disablement as assessed by a medical board; it varies from £5 15s. for 100 per cent disablement to £1 3s. a week for 20 per cent disablement. For disablement of less than 20 per cent a gratuity is normally paid, ranging up to £380.

In certain circumstances disablement benefit may be supplemented as follows: unemployability supplement, at the weekly rate of £3 7s. 6d.; constant attendance allowance of up to £2 10s. weekly, or at a special rate of

£5 a week in exceptionally severe cases; a special hardship allowance of up to £2 6s. for a person who is unfit to return to his regular job or work of an equivalent standard; and hospital treatment allowances which raise the benefit to that for a 100 per cent assessment during hospital treatment for the industrial disability. Increases of benefit for dependants are payable with unemployability supplement and hospital treatment allowance.

Death Benefit

If the accident or disease results in the insured person's death, death benefit may be paid to the dependants.

For a widow a pension of £4 15s. a week is payable for the first thirteen weeks of widowhood. Thereafter, the widow is entitled to a pension of £3 15s. a week if she (1) is entitled to a child's allowance or was over the age of 40 on ceasing to be so entitled, or (2) was over 50 years of age or was permanently incapable of self-support at the time of her husband's death, or (3) is not entitled to child's allowance, but has residing with her a young person under the age of 18 who was or could be treated as being in her late husband's family, or (4) is over 40 years of age when (3) ceases to apply, or (5) is pregnant by her late husband. If none of these conditions is satisfied, the widow may receive a pension of £1 a week. But the pension is limited, if she had been living apart from her husband, to the weekly rate of maintenance he was paying, if less than the rate otherwise appropriate.

In addition, allowances are paid for children under the family allowances age limits. For widows, these allowances are normally at the rate of £1 10s. a week for the first or only child and £1 2s. a week for each other child. For other beneficiaries, the rate is £1 and 12s. a week respectively.

Certain other dependants, such as parents and other relatives, may be entitled to pensions of up to £1 a week, allowances or gratuities.

WAR PENSIONS AND RELATED SERVICES

Pensions and allowances for men and women disabled or bereaved through the wars or subsequent military service are paid under Royal Warrants and other instruments administered by the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance.

The current basic pension for 100 per cent disablement for a private soldier is £5 15s. a week, but the amount varies according to rank and the degree of disablement. The latter is assessed by comparing the general condition of the disabled person as affected by service with that of a normal healthy person of the same age and sex. Allowances for a wife and children are paid in addition to the basic pension. There is a wide range of supplementary allowances, the main ones being for unemployability (£3 14s. a week), constant attendance (up to £2 10s. and, exceptionally, £5 a week), comforts (10s. or £1 a week), and lowered standard of occupation (up to £2 6s. a week). An age allowance (at rates varying between 5s. and 15s. a week) is payable to disablement pensioners who are aged 65 or over and whose assessment is 40 per cent or more.

Pensions are also paid to war widows and war orphans. The standard rate of pension for widows of private soldiers is £4 10s. a week, with additional allowances for their children (£1 14s. for each child), and, in certain cases, an allowance for rent (up to £1 14s. a week). There is an allowance of 10s. a week for widows aged 70 or over. Parents or other relatives who were dependent on a person whose death resulted from military service may receive pensions if they are in financial need.

The Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance maintains a welfare service for war pensioners, with a special branch for war orphans, which is available to help any pensioner who requires advice and assistance. War pensioners have priority (except over more urgent cases) for treatment of their war disabilities in National Health Service hospitals.

Many voluntary associations, such as the British Legion and other ex-Service organisations, give financial aid and personal service to disabled ex-Service men and women and their families. The Ministry's welfare officers work in close co-operation with these voluntary bodies and with the specialist Government welfare agencies.

NATIONAL ASSISTANCE

The National Assistance Act, 1948, abolished the existing Poor Law and, in place of the various services for the relief of need previously provided from both central and local government funds, established for the first time a comprehensive State service of financial assistance according to need which is administered by the National Assistance Board.

Application to the board for financial assistance can be made, with certain exceptions relating to people in full-time work or involved in a trade dispute, by anyone over the age of 16 who is in need. The need for assistance is decided by reference to general standards (which are amended from time to time) laid down in regulations approved by Parliament.

The regulations make special provision for higher rates for the blind and certain tuberculous people, and also allow the board's officer to adjust the amount payable to suit the particular circumstances of every case. The help given is in this way related directly to the needs of the individual or family.

HEALTH¹

THE SERVICES described in this chapter are those concerned with environmental and personal health services for all residents; measures to promote the health of employees at their place of work and of school children are described in the sections of this pamphlet about employment and on education.

PUBLIC HEALTH

Administrative Authorities

The Public Health Act of 1936 brought up to date and consolidated preceding Acts; it constitutes the present basic public health code in England and Wales. Local authorities are mainly responsible for its implementation and they have extensive powers for the making and administration of by-laws relating to matters of public health. The local authorities chiefly concerned are the councils of county and non-county boroughs, urban and rural district councils, and, to a limited extent, parish councils.

Public health services in Scotland and Northern Ireland have developed on much the same lines as in England and Wales, although they are based on separate Acts and there is a different allocation of services between the various types of local authority. The Public Health (Scotland) Act, 1897, and the Burgh Police (Scotland) Act, 1892, constitute the basic legislation for Scotland. The local authorities concerned are the councils of counties and burghs. In Northern Ireland the councils of county and non-county boroughs and urban and rural districts are mainly responsible for administering the Public Health Acts (Northern Ireland), 1878–1955.

Control of Infectious Diseases

Local authorities are responsible for the investigation by their Medical Officers of Health of outbreaks of infectious diseases and for disinfection and other measures advised by them for preventing the spread of infectious diseases in the area. They are also responsible to the Ministry of Health (or the Welsh Board of Health or the Secretary of State for Scotland or the Ministry of Health and Local Government for Northern Ireland) for recording notifications of the prescribed infectious diseases.

Pure Food

The purity, hygiene and description of food are controlled by legislation consolidated for England and Wales in the Food and Drugs Act, 1955, for

¹For fuller information, see COI reference pamphlet R.F.P. 5154, *Health Services in Britain*.

Scotland in the Food and Drugs (Scotland) Act, 1956, and for Northern Ireland in the Food and Drugs Act (Northern Ireland), 1958. The Acts and regulations made under them are, in general, carried out by the local authorities; the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, Scottish Home and Health Department, and the Ministry of Health and Local Government in Northern Ireland are the central departments responsible for advising and for making regulations under the Act. Places where food for sale for human consumption is prepared, sold or stored are required to conform to certain hygienic standards. Authorised officers of the councils concerned may take for analysis or for bacteriological or other examination samples of any food for sale for human consumption. Special regulations are in force for certain foods such as milk, meat and ice-cream.

Other Public Health Duties

Local authorities are also responsible for the public health aspects of water supply, sewerage and drainage; street paving and housing; and the abatement of noise nuisance. They have power to establish smoke controlled areas to secure cleaner air; they may add fluoride to the water supplies to combat dental decay.

THE NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

The Acts setting up the National Health Service—the National Health Service Act, 1946, the National Health Service (Scotland) Act, 1947, and the Health Services Act (Northern Ireland), 1948—came into force simultaneously on 5th July, 1948.

The object of the National Health Service Act, 1946, is 'to promote the establishment in England and Wales of a comprehensive health service designed to secure improvement in the physical and mental health of the people of England and Wales and the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of illness, and for that purpose to provide or secure the effective provision of services'. The National Health Service (Amendment) Act, 1949, and the National Health Service Acts, 1951 to 1961, made some modifications in the scheme for Great Britain and provided for charges to be made for certain parts of the service, which is otherwise available free of charge to all according to medical need without regard to any insurance qualification, although national insurance contributors are required to pay a separate weekly national health contribution under the National Health Service Contribution Acts, 1957 to 1961 (see table on p. 13). Visitors from other countries who come to Britain for treatment are expected to pay for it, but treatment can be given under the emergency provisions of the National Health Service to any who have the misfortune to fall ill during a visit to Britain.

Health Service Administration in Great Britain

The Service falls into three parts:

- (1) the hospital and specialist services for which the Minister of Health or Secretary of State for Scotland is directly responsible. These are

administered through 20 regional hospital boards and nearly 500 hospital management committees, or, in the case of teaching hospitals in England and Wales, boards of governors.

- (2) The general practitioner services consisting of the family doctor service, the dental service, the eye service and the pharmaceutical service, for which the Health Ministers are indirectly responsible. They are administered by over 160 local executive councils on which doctors, dentists and pharmacists are represented.
- (3) The local authority services, consisting of maternity and child welfare services, services for the prevention of illness, care and after-care, health visiting, home nursing and domestic help, in England and Wales ambulance services,¹ and health centres, for which the Health Ministers are indirectly responsible. They are administered by the major local authorities.

In addition, the Minister of Health in England and Wales has power to conduct, or assist others to conduct, research work and he provides a public health laboratory service and a blood transfusion service. He is advised by the Central Health Services Council and by standing advisory committees on various aspects of the service.

Medical and dental schools are not under the control of the Minister; but it is his responsibility to provide clinical facilities for the training of medical students. The universities are responsible for the provision of teaching.

The Secretary of State has similar duties with regard to Scotland. The teaching hospitals in Scotland come under the control of the regional hospital boards, but special medical education committees consider matters relating to medical teaching. The Scottish Health Services Council and the standing advisory committees advise the Secretary of State and keep closely in touch with the Central Health Services Council on common issues.

The Northern Ireland Health Services are described separately on p. 27.

Health Service Finance

Annual expenditure on the National Health Service in the United Kingdom was £901 million in 1961–62, and amounts to just over 3½ per cent of the total national income. The greater part of the cost falls on the Exchequer, to be met from general taxation, and a small part is met from local rates. Other income is derived from the national health contribution paid with the national insurance contribution and from the payments for those parts of the service for which charges are made. These charges, first introduced in 1951 and since increased, are designed to help to limit rising costs without reducing the services offered.

There is a charge of 2s. for each item on a prescription form. Charges are also made for dentures (except for children under 16 or still at school, and expectant and nursing mothers) and spectacles (except children's spectacles in standard frames), for elastic hosiery supplied in the family

¹In Scotland the Secretary of State is directly responsible for ambulance services.

doctor service or hospital out-patients' department, for certain appliances supplied to out-patients, for treatment in the dental service (but not for examination only or for treatment given to people under 21 years or to nursing or expectant mothers), and for some local health authority services. Certain exemptions or refunds are made and anyone may apply to the National Assistance Board for help in meeting any of these charges. Under the 1946 Act, a limited number of beds may be put aside for hospital patients wishing for privacy, provided that this accommodation is not needed on medical grounds for non-paying patients. Charges for these 'amenity' beds are fixed by statutory regulations. Provision is also made at certain hospitals for patients who wish to occupy private patients' accommodation on payment of the whole cost of this accommodation and treatment. Such patients may make private arrangements for treatment by doctors of their own choice.

Hospital medical staffs are either full-time and salaried, or part-time; part-time medical officers are usually paid on a sessional basis and are free to accept private patients. General medical practitioners in public service are remunerated mainly by capitation fees according to the number of people on their lists.

Dentists providing treatment in their own surgeries are paid on a prescribed scale of fees according to the treatment they have carried out. Pharmacists dispensing on their own premises are paid on the basis of the prescriptions they dispense. Doctors and ophthalmic opticians taking part in the supplementary ophthalmic service are paid prescribed fees for each sight test made; opticians who dispense spectacles are paid according to the number and type of pairs supplied.

The General Practitioner Services

The general practitioner services cover the medical attention given to individuals by doctors and dentists of their own choice, from among those enrolled in the service. About 25,000, or almost all, general medical practitioners (principals and assistants) in Great Britain take some part in the service.

Doctors now wishing to enter practice have to apply through their executive councils to the central Medical Practices Committee, so that a better distribution of doctors throughout the country may be facilitated. The maximum number of patients' names permitted to be on a family doctor's list is normally 3,500; the average number in England and Wales is about 2,300. It is normally through the patient's own doctor that access to most other parts of the health service is obtained.

There are over 11,000 dentists in Great Britain in the general dental service.

Nearly 1,000 ophthalmic medical practitioners and about 8,000 ophthalmic and dispensing opticians in Great Britain are engaged in the supplementary ophthalmic service. This service provides for the testing of sight and provision of spectacles. Cases requiring treatment are dealt with through the hospital eye service.

Nearly all retail pharmacists (some 15,000 in Great Britain) take part in the service. They are responsible for the dispensing of all prescriptions except for the small number dispensed by certain general practitioners.

Hospital and Specialist Services

The hospital and specialist services provide hospital accommodation of all kinds, including district general hospitals with treatment and diagnostic facilities both for in-patients and out-patients, hospital maternity departments, infectious disease units, psychiatric hospitals and units, convalescent homes, and rehabilitation centres; all forms of specialised treatment; and the services of specialists and other staff required for the hospitals.

There are about 3,000 hospitals in the National Health Service in Great Britain. Much has been done in recent years to improve and extend existing hospitals and a start has been made on the building of new hospitals. In 1962 ten-year plans for hospital development were published by the Government, setting out the probable future pattern of the hospital services. Over 200 new or substantially remodelled hospitals are to be started in England and Wales and 20 in Scotland, at a total cost of over £800 million in England and Wales and £70 million in Scotland.

A small number of hospitals remain outside the service for special reasons. Most of these are run by religious orders. Some, such as the Italian and French hospitals, serve a special group of patients; others are maintained for the chronic sick or for convalescents by charitable organisations. There are also private nursing homes, which must be registered.

Many hospitals have an almoners' department staffed by medical-social workers trained to apply the principles of social casework to the problems of the hospital patient. The almoner's main function is to co-operate with the medical staff in their treatment of the patient; to limit, by social action, the personal anxieties, family difficulties and other problems which arise during illness; and to arrange, if necessary, for after-care and help with adjustment to normal life or continuing disability. Psychiatric social workers are specially trained for work in the mental health services and in child guidance clinics. They make an invaluable contribution, not only to hospitals but also to the local health and education services, in assessing the environmental factors in mental abnormalities and in helping patients to make the necessary adjustments.

The Public Health Laboratory Service provides a network of bacteriological and virological laboratories throughout England and Wales which conduct research and assist in the diagnosis, prevention and control of epidemic diseases.

In Scotland and Northern Ireland, where there is no separate public health laboratory service, bacteriological work is done mainly in hospital laboratories.

The National Blood Transfusion Service, administered by the regional hospital boards in England and Wales and by the Scottish National Blood Transfusion Service, supplies blood without any charge to the hospitals or individuals receiving it. The blood is given free by voluntary donors.

Mass miniature radiography was introduced in 1943 as a means of early diagnosis of tuberculosis. About 110 units in Britain operate under the regional hospital boards, in close co-operation with the local health authorities. They examine about $3\frac{1}{2}$ million people a year, concentrating increasingly on areas with a bad record for tuberculosis, on specially susceptible

groups in the population, and on adults in regular contact with organised groups of children.

Mental Health Services

Treatment for mental disorder is provided as part of the National Health Service. Patients who are suffering from mental illness can consult the family doctor and receive specialist advice at hospital out-patient clinics as they would for any other kind of illness, and if they need to enter a hospital for treatment, whether a general or a psychiatric hospital, they can do so without formalities. If patients, or their relatives, are unable or unwilling to make the necessary arrangements for admission to a psychiatric hospital, it is the duty of a mental welfare officer of the local health authority to do so.

Where necessary in the interests of society or of the patients themselves, mentally disordered patients can be compulsorily detained in hospital. Compulsory admission to hospital is regulated in England and Wales by the Mental Health Act, 1959, and in Scotland by the Mental Health (Scotland) Act, 1960. There are procedural safeguards to protect the patient from unnecessary detention and he, or his relatives, may appeal against detention, in England and Wales to a mental health tribunal, and in Scotland to the sheriff.

Local health authorities have a duty to make arrangements for the prevention of mental disorder, and for the care and after-care of people suffering from mental disorder. Arrangements may include facilities for training or occupation, and residential accommodation. If necessary, the local health authority can place a mentally disordered person under guardianship within the community. In Scotland education authorities share the responsibility for providing training or occupation.

Local Authority Services for Mothers and Babies

Maternity and child welfare centres are part of the advisory and preventive services of the local health authority; they offer regular supervision by doctors and nurses to expectant and nursing mothers and young children. Special sessions are held for vaccination and inoculation and for early testing of babies for deafness and other defects, and a feature of the service is the education of mothers by means of talks, discussion groups, demonstrations and classes. About 80 per cent of all babies are taken to the centres.

The expectant mother may arrange to have her baby at home or in hospital according to the advice given by the doctor or midwife, or according to her own preference if sufficient hospital beds are available over and above those required for priority cases, i.e. those for whom domiciliary confinement is inadvisable for medical or obstetric reasons or because of adverse home conditions. For a home confinement the services of either a general practitioner obstetrician or her own family doctor, if he is willing to undertake her maternity care, besides those of a trained midwife in the domiciliary service of the local health authority, are now available to every mother. The doctor carries out ante-natal and post-natal examinations, attends at the confinement and gives any other medical care required. The services of a consultant obstetrician are also available if the doctor wishes to ask for his

advice. Routine supervision and advice is given by the midwife, who visits regularly before the confinement to examine the mother and give her advice and help generally. In addition, the expectant mother may attend the ante-natal clinic for instruction in preparation for motherhood and in some cases for interim ante-natal supervision. Frequently it is the midwife who undertakes the actual delivery. Both she and the doctor attend during the 10 days after confinement. Midwives work in close touch with the welfare centres in the care of the mother both before and after the birth of the child.

Many local health authorities make special arrangements for premature babies remaining in their own homes, by lending equipment and appointing experienced nursing staff to supervise their care.

There are about 470 day nurseries for children under five in Great Britain provided by local health authorities or voluntary associations working with them. The National Health Service Act, 1952, gave local authorities power to make charges for the use of day nurseries. Private or factory nurseries (of which there are about 700 altogether) must be registered with the local health authorities; this regulation applies also to persons who mind for payment more than two children, not all of the same family.

Other Local Health Services

The Local Health Services administered by the county and county borough councils (county and large burgh councils in Scotland) consist of (besides the maternity and child welfare services) the services for the prevention of illness, care, and after-care, including vaccination and immunisation, health visiting, home nursing and domestic help, and care in some cases of mental disorder; and, in England and Wales, the provision, equipment and maintenance of local health centres. A White Paper (Cmnd. 1973) was laid before Parliament in April 1963 setting out the plans of local authorities in England and Wales for the development of the health and welfare services over the decade 1962 to 1972. In Scotland fundamental studies of services are being carried out as a guide to authorities in their plans for expansion.

Local health authorities are responsible for prevention, care and after-care arrangements for mental disorder (see p. 23) and tuberculosis. They are responsible for BCG vaccination and other preventive measures against tuberculosis and also for rehabilitation, but not for diagnosis and treatment, which are the responsibility of the hospital service and are provided through hospitals and chest clinics. The chest physicians in charge of the clinics are, however, often employed jointly by the hospital authorities and local authorities to ensure co-ordination of all phases of treatment. They are assisted by tuberculosis health visitors and nurses, and by almoners or other social workers.

Care and after-care arrangements are made to varying extents for other types of illness; in particular there are certain services for people being nursed at home, such as the loan of special equipment or the laundering of bed linen. A chiropody service is provided in many areas. As part of their preventive work, local health authorities may give help and advice to families, particularly those in difficulties and in danger of breaking up, where there is a danger to the physical or mental health of the children.

A charge may be made for some of these services if the person wishing to make use of them can reasonably be expected to contribute towards their cost.

All local health authorities have arrangements for vaccination, without charge and as part of the National Health Service, against diphtheria, poliomyelitis, smallpox, tetanus, tuberculosis and whooping cough.

Vaccination against poliomyelitis by local health authorities is normally restricted to people under 40 years of age; those over 40 may be vaccinated, free of charge under the National Health Service, by their general practitioner. BCG vaccination against tuberculosis by local health authorities is available to children of ten years and upwards and to others particularly exposed to risk of tubercular infection.

Health visitors are employed by local health authorities to visit people in their own homes to give advice on the care of young children, expectant and nursing mothers, people suffering from illness, including mental illness, and any injury or disability requiring medical or dental treatment, and on measures necessary to prevent the spread of infection. Their duties include health education and attendance at ante-natal and child welfare clinics. They may also undertake tuberculosis visiting and school nursing.

The employment of nurses to attend patients who require nursing in their own homes is the responsibility of the local health authorities. Most authorities employ nurses directly for this purpose, although others have arranged for voluntary district nursing associations to provide a service on their behalf.

Local health authorities (welfare authorities in Northern Ireland) have the power to make arrangements for domestic help (commonly called 'home help') in households where it is needed owing to illness, confinement, or the presence of children, or old people. This service is mainly used in the care of old or chronically sick people, in maternity cases and, to a lesser extent but increasingly, for families where such help is needed to prevent children having to be cared for away from home, for example, during the absence of the mother. The authorities may recover from those assisted such charges as it is considered they can afford to pay, but the service may be provided without charge to people with very small incomes.

Ambulance Services

Free conveyance by ambulance in England and Wales between home and hospital or clinic is provided, where needed, by local authorities either directly or by arrangement with voluntary organisations. The Hospital Car Service (organised by the St. John Ambulance Brigade, the British Red Cross Society, and the Women's Voluntary Service) augments the ambulance service in many areas for the conveyance of sitting patients. In Scotland ambulances are run by the Scottish Ambulance Service (St. Andrew's Ambulance Association and the Scottish branch of the British Red Cross Society) on behalf of the Secretary of State. In Northern Ireland they are run by the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority.

Health Centres

Seventeen health centres which provide primarily for the association of general medical practice with maternity and child welfare services and the

school health service have been set up by local health authorities in England and Wales. This is one form of co-operation between the different elements in the health service. Other forms of co-operation are growing, such as the siting of group practices adjacent to local health authority clinics, the attendance of midwives for ante-natal sessions at general practitioners' surgeries and the attachment of health visitors to particular practices for the whole or part of their time. The provision of the two health centres in Scotland is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland and not of local health authorities.

Health Education

Local authority child welfare clinics and health visitors are important channels of health education. In many authorities a specified officer includes this subject among his duties and some authorities have a special health education officer to plan and co-ordinate the different aspects of health teaching. The Central Council for Health Education provides a central advisory service and the central Government departments assist with publicity material such as films and posters.

Welfare Foods Service

Under the welfare foods service expectant and nursing mothers, children under five and certain handicapped children can obtain a pint of milk a day at a reduced price. Other welfare foods distributed by local health authorities to the same group of people are dried milk, as an alternative to liquid milk and at an equivalent price, orange juice, cod liver oil and vitamin A and D tablets, at cost price. Families who cannot afford to pay can apply to the National Assistance Board for special tokens to enable them to obtain supplies free of charge.

Problems of the National Health Service

The National Health Service is not without its difficulties and shortcomings. For example, the original ideal of comprehensive free treatment for all has to some extent been breached by the introduction of charges for some parts of the Service which the majority of the users have to pay. In spite of these, the total cost of the Service has continued to rise, because of such factors as increases in prices and in staff salaries, the high cost of many new drugs and of modern equipment, the increased use made by the public of the services provided, extensions and improvements of the service and an increased rate of capital expenditure. More doctors, dentists, midwives and nurses are needed by an expanding service. There is also some disparity between different parts of the country; some areas have more family doctors than others, more hospital beds for confinements of mothers who would prefer to have their babies in hospital though they do not need specialist medical care, and more extensive local authority services.

Against these shortcomings may be set a steady improvement in the country's vital statistics to which the National Health Service has largely contributed, the decrease in invalidity from neglected ailments, and the removal of anxiety about the cost of treatment from which many of those who now use the service previously suffered.

HEALTH SERVICES IN NORTHERN IRELAND

The health services established under the Health Services Act (Northern Ireland), 1948, correspond fairly closely to the medical care system established under the National Health Service in Great Britain and they are financed in the same way as in the rest of the United Kingdom.

The hospital and specialist services are administered by the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority (which corresponds approximately to a regional hospital board in Great Britain) through hospital management committees. In hospital administration the role of the central Government is not quite so immediate and direct as in Great Britain: hospital property, for example, is vested not in the Minister of Health and Local Government but in the Northern Ireland Hospitals Authority, which has under its control 75 hospitals containing in all about 17,000 beds. The administration of the general medical, dental, pharmaceutical and supplementary eye services is in the hands of the Northern Ireland Health Services Board, which takes the place of the executive councils in Great Britain. Local health services are administered by the six county councils and the two county borough councils in Northern Ireland. The range of local authority services and the arrangements made by the Northern Ireland General Health Services Board for the provision of services, and for the remuneration of the people providing them, are similar to those already described for the rest of the United Kingdom.

MEDICAL RESEARCH¹

Medical research in Britain receiving support from Government funds is carried out by the Medical Research Council (see below), the universities and their associated medical schools, and also in hospitals in the National Health Service.

A considerable amount of medical research is undertaken by private organisations, of which the British Empire Cancer Campaign and the Nuffield Foundations are probably the largest. There is close co-operation between the Medical Research Council and these organisations to ensure the best allocation of their respective resources. The pharmaceutical industry also makes a valuable contribution to research.

Medical Research Council

The Medical Research Council's programme of work is carried out both in its own research establishments and by independent investigators, in the universities and elsewhere, with support from the council in the form of research grants. The programme includes fundamental studies of the structure and natural processes of the body; clinical and laboratory studies of disease; the development and evaluation of special methods of treatment and also of prophylaxis and diagnosis; and the study of social and occupational factors affecting health and the efficiency of body and mind.

¹For fuller information, see COI reference paper R.5578, *Medical Research in Britain*.

In planning and carrying out its programme, the council is assisted by special advisory committees which it appoints. Two of the more important of these are the Clinical Research Board, set up in consultation with the health departments to assist the development of clinical research, and the Tropical Medicine Research Board, appointed in consultation with the Department of Technical Co-operation, to advise on the promotion and co-ordination of research in this field.

FAMILY WELFARE¹

THIS SECTION concerns services provided for families as such or intended to supply or supplement family care. Financial help to families through social security benefits is described in the section on social security, and medical care of mothers and young children in the section on health.

HELP TO FAMILIES

Family casework was first provided by voluntary agencies such as, in London, the Family Welfare Association. The majority of family case-workers are still to be found in voluntary agencies, but an increasing number of local authorities are employing them in their health, children's or welfare departments. In most cases, financial or material relief can only solve part of the problem and much time and care is spent on the solution of personal difficulties. Local authorities may make grants to local agencies to help in their work.

There are over 100 marriage guidance councils in Britain, co-ordinated in England, Wales and Northern Ireland by the National Marriage Guidance Council, and in Scotland by the Scottish Marriage Guidance Council. The Catholic Marriage Advisory Council has over 20 local centres in England and Wales. Through these various bodies free advice is given by voluntary counsellors to couples who are meeting problems in their married life and to young people approaching marriage. Panels of experts (ministers of religion, doctors and lawyers) act as consultants. The central Government makes grants for marriage guidance work to the headquarters of the national bodies, and local authorities may make grants to local marriage guidance councils.

Local authorities have a duty to promote the welfare of children by giving advice and assistance (which may include financial help in some cases) to families in difficulty, and may initiate court proceedings when children seem to be in need of care, protection or control. A small minority of families which need special help in managing their affairs are the focus of much attention from health, housing, education, children's and welfare authorities and voluntary bodies. The voluntary Family Service Units undertake intensive and prolonged casework with such families and there are several voluntary recuperative centres to which mothers who cannot cope with their children can be sent for a period of residential training, sometimes as a condition of a probation order.

The old-established National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and its Scottish counterpart between them maintain inspectors and visitors throughout the United Kingdom for the investigation of cases of reported cruelty to, or neglect of, children in their own homes; when necessary they resort to law for the protection of such children, but they prefer to achieve their purpose by warning and advice.

¹For fuller information, see COI reference pamphlets R.F.P. 5236 *Children in Britain* and R.F.P. 4470 *Social Work in Britain*.

Most local authorities contribute to the cost of the work done by voluntary denominational and other bodies which care for unmarried mothers and their babies; a few authorities make direct provision for their special needs through their health departments. The voluntary associations employ specially trained workers to help the unmarried mother in making plans for herself and her child. Most homes and hostels for the ante-natal and post-natal care (and, in some cases, the confinement) of these mothers are provided by such organisations. (Unmarried mothers can receive medical attention (see p. 23) and social security benefits (see p. 12) on the same terms as married women.)

CARE OF CHILDREN DEPRIVED OF NORMAL HOME LIFE

The Children Act, 1948, which came into force with the ending of the Poor Law, places upon local authorities in Great Britain a duty to receive into their care any child under the age of 17 who has no parent or guardian, or who has been abandoned or whose parents are unable to provide for him temporarily or permanently. A child so received remains in the care of the local authority until he is 18 years old unless the authority finds it to his advantage to return him sooner to his parents or guardian or to entrust him to friends. Under the Children and Young Persons Acts, 1933–52 (as regards England and Wales), and the Children and Young Persons (Scotland) Acts, 1937 and 1956, children in need of care or protection may be committed by juvenile courts to the care of a 'fit person', usually the local authority, until they reach the age of 18. Both categories of children are to be treated so as to further their best interests and afford them opportunity for the proper development of their character and interests.

Administrative Authorities

To carry out its functions under the Children Act, each local authority (county council and county borough council or, in Scotland, council of a large burgh) is required to appoint a children's committee and a children's officer to be responsible for the care and upbringing of children in the authority's care. Children's officers are assisted by a staff of child-care officers who undertake inquiries and who supervise children placed in foster homes. Regulations for England and Wales safeguarding the boarding out of children by local authorities and voluntary organisations and the conduct of children's homes have been made by the Home Secretary. In Scotland similar regulations have been made by the Secretary of State for Scotland. The cost of the local authorities' child-care service, including the provision of training for house-parents and child-care officers, is shared between the local authorities and the Exchequer.

In Northern Ireland the Children and Young Persons Act (Northern Ireland), 1950, gave to the welfare authorities of each county and county borough (under the general direction of the Ministry of Home Affairs) the duty of caring for homeless and neglected children. Legislation relating children and arrangements for their care follow the same general principles as in Great Britain.

War orphans are the responsibility of the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance (see p. 17).

How Children are Cared For

When practicable, children in care are boarded out with foster parents, who receive an allowance to cover the cost of maintenance. If a foster home cannot be found for a child, or he is not suitable for boarding out, he may be placed in a children's home provided by a local authority or a voluntary organisation. Many children's homes are now provided in small houses, on housing estates or in ordinary streets, where a group of twelve or fewer children live in the care of a housemother or houseparents, the husband following his normal employment. Other children may be placed in hostels or lodgings or in other accommodation specially suited to their needs. The desirability of returning a child to his family circle as soon as possible is fully appreciated, and work is carried out to rehabilitate the family where this is necessary.

Voluntary organisations, many of which were pioneers in child care, continue to play a valuable part in this work. The larger societies, such as Dr. Barnardo's, the Church of England Children's Society and the Catholic Child Welfare Council, are constituent societies of the National Council of Associated Children's Homes, to which a large number of smaller voluntary homes are also affiliated. In Scotland a valuable contribution is also made by the Children's Homes and Hostels under the auspices of the Church of Scotland Committee on Social Service, and by other voluntary organisations. Children's homes provided by voluntary organisations (of which there are about 620 in Great Britain and 23 in Northern Ireland) are required to be registered under the Children Act (in Northern Ireland under the Children and Young Persons Act). The boarding out of children and all children's homes, whether local authority or voluntary homes, are subject to inspection by the Child Care Inspectorate of the Home Office, of the Scottish Office, or of the Northern Ireland Ministry of Home Affairs.

ADOPTION

Provision for legal adoption was first made in England and Wales in 1926, in Northern Ireland in 1929 and in Scotland in 1930. Over 17,000 adoption orders are made annually by the courts in Great Britain and some 250 in Northern Ireland; there are always more would-be adopters than children available for adoption. Adoption is now regulated by the Adoption Act, 1958, in Great Britain and by the Adoption of Children Act (Northern Ireland), 1950, in Northern Ireland. The Registrars-General keep registers of adopted children; adoption societies (there are over 70 societies which arrange adoptions) must be registered with the local authority (in Northern Ireland with the Ministry of Home Affairs).

EDUCATION¹

THE PRINCIPLES of publicly provided education in Britain are set out in the Education Act, 1944,² which states that 'the statutory system of public education shall be organised in three progressive stages, to be known as primary education, secondary education, and further education; and it shall be the duty of the local education authority for every area, so far as their powers extend, to contribute towards the spiritual, moral, mental and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education throughout those stages shall be available to meet the needs of the population of their area'. Every parent is required to cause his child 'to receive efficient full-time education suitable to his age, ability and aptitude, either by regular attendance at school or otherwise' between the ages of 5 and 15.³

More than 90 per cent of the children of these ages in Britain are attending publicly maintained or assisted schools, and it is increasingly common for the parents of higher as well as lower income groups to choose these schools for their children. The independent schools range from 'public schools' with centuries-old traditions, to a variety of experimental schools of modern foundation.

The system of education in Britain combines variety and freedom. Its most characteristic features in organisation are decentralisation of administration, the prominent part played by voluntary agencies, and the freedom of teachers from official direction on curricula and methods of teaching.

Total public expenditure in 1961-62 on education exceeded £1,000 million.

Educational Administration

Administration of publicly provided education in Britain is divided between the central Government departments (the Ministry of Education for England and Wales, with its separate Welsh Department, the Scottish Education Department, and the Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland), local education authorities, and various voluntary organisations. The relation among these three groups is based on consultation and co-operation, both by direct contact between the parties and through Her Majesty's Inspectors of Education who act as liaison officers, particularly between local education authorities and the departments. There are special arrangements for the universities (see p. 40).

The local education authorities are responsible for ensuring that adequate provision is made in their areas for the two stages of school education (primary and secondary), and that those pupils who would profit by proceeding to a university are not deterred by lack of financial means. They are also

¹For fuller information, see COI reference pamphlets R.F.P. 4751 *Education in Britain* and R.F.P. 5165 *Technical Education in Britain*, and reference paper R. 5520 *Universities in Britain*.

²This Act applies to England and Wales; similar responsibilities are laid on authorities and parents in Scotland and Northern Ireland by the corresponding Scottish and Northern Ireland Acts.

³It is intended to raise the minimum school-leaving age to 16 as soon as practicable.

responsible for the provision of all forms of 'further education', i.e. post-school education outside the universities.

The planning of the curriculum is largely in the hands of the head teacher of each school and the individual teachers. In England and Wales teachers are not subject to direction from the central department on questions relating to curricula or methods. Her Majesty's Inspectors, who are responsible for the inspection of all schools including independent schools, review and report on the content and value of the education provided and, during their visits, are available as advisers. Local education authorities also employ inspectors to advise on the schools which they maintain. In Scotland the broad outline of schemes of work in primary and secondary schools is subject to the approval of one of Her Majesty's Inspectors. In Northern Ireland the curriculum of each grant-aided school is subject to the approval of the Ministry of Education, but considerable latitude is afforded both in the scope of the curriculum and in the methods employed.

SCHOOLS

Parents in Britain are required by law to see that their children receive efficient full-time education, at school or elsewhere, between the ages of 5 and 15. The school-leaving age is to be raised to 16 as soon as enough teachers and adequate accommodation become available to allow this to be done without increasing the size of classes; this, however, is unlikely to be possible for some years. Nearly $9\frac{1}{2}$ million children attend publicly maintained or aided schools, besides the $\frac{1}{4}$ million others at independent schools receiving direct grants from the Ministry of Education. The number of school children in Britain is increasing as more stay on each year beyond the minimum school-leaving age. Moreover, the birth rate has continued to rise steadily since 1955, so that primary school numbers are very high. There is, therefore, a continuing demand for more teachers and more school buildings.

In England and in Northern Ireland it is usual for boys and girls to be taught together in primary schools, but rather more than half the secondary schools are for boys or girls only. Mixed schools are more common in Wales; and in Scotland all but a few city schools take both boys and girls.

The majority of independent schools are for boys or for girls only, except in classes for small children. There are, however, a few schools which are co-educational.

In England and Wales three kinds of school are supported from public funds: *county schools* (the largest group) which are provided and maintained by local education authorities, i.e. their full cost falls on public funds; *voluntary schools* (mostly 'aided' or 'controlled' schools) which have been provided by a voluntary body, usually of a religious denomination, but which are maintained by local education authorities;¹ and *direct-grant schools*

¹Aided schools have more independence than controlled schools, but they are partly responsible for maintaining their buildings (see p. 39) whereas controlled schools are not. Over a third of the schools maintained by local education authorities in England and Wales are voluntary schools and the majority of these are Church of England schools. There are some 2,000 Roman Catholic voluntary schools and smaller numbers belonging to other religious bodies.

which are completely independent of local education authorities but receive a grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Education. These last (the smallest group) mostly provide education of the grammar school type; they include some schools of ancient foundation.

In Scotland most of the schools supported from public funds are provided by education authorities and are known as *public schools* (in England this term is used for a type of independent school of which there are also a few in Scotland and Northern Ireland, see p. 36). There are also a few *grant-aided schools* (some of ancient foundation) conducted by voluntary managers and receiving grants direct from the Scottish Education Department.

In Northern Ireland there are county schools, managed by local education authorities, and voluntary schools, which are grant-aided schools under voluntary management.

In England and Wales no fees are charged to parents of children attending schools maintained by local education authorities, and books and equipment are supplied free. Direct grant schools charge fees but must offer each year, to pupils who have at any time previously attended a grant-aided primary school for not less than two years, free places to the extent of not less than 25 per cent of the previous year's admission; and a further 25 per cent of the places must be put at the disposal of the local education authorities if they require them. Pupils occupying these latter places need not previously have attended a grant-aided primary school. Day pupils not holding free places are entitled to claim a remission of fees in accordance with an approved income scale, and the Ministry of Education pays the governors of the school the amount of the fees so remitted. Local education authorities also pay for some free places in independent schools which normally charge fees. A number of independent schools are able to offer some scholarships from endowments.

In Scotland education authorities may charge fees in certain schools provided that this does not prejudice the provision of free education for all who desire it.

In Northern Ireland no fees are charged to parents of children attending any county or voluntary primary, intermediate or special school; qualified pupils attending both county and voluntary grammar schools receive scholarships from the local education authorities which cover the whole or most of the fees charged by the school.

Primary Schools

A child's primary education continues until about the age of 11 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and 12 in Scotland. There are some *nursery schools* and classes for children between 2 and 5 years old. In England and Wales there are *infant schools*, or departments, for all children between 5 and 7 and *junior schools* for those aged 7 to 11, while in Scotland there are *primary departments* for children aged 5 to 12 years.

In Scotland primary pupils must be taught reading, writing, arithmetic, English, music, art and handwork, nature study, physical training and, at the appropriate stage, history, geography, and written composition; girls must learn needlework. Religious instruction is also given. In England, Wales

and Northern Ireland although there is no central directive, the curriculum is similar in scope, with the addition in Wales of the teaching of Welsh. (Children who speak Welsh at home normally receive the early stages of their primary education in Welsh and are taught English as a second language.)

Secondary Schools

In England and Wales, since the organisation of schools is a responsibility of local education authorities, subject to the approval of the Ministry of Education, the type of provision made for secondary education varies to some extent between areas. In some areas, different types of school specialise, particularly in the later years, in different types of course, with arrangements for the transfer of pupils between schools where desirable; in other areas flexibility is achieved by an overlap of the courses provided in different types of school. There are, however, two main types of publicly maintained secondary school in England and Wales: grammar and secondary modern.

Grammar schools take children who hope to reach a university and others likely to profit from an academic type of education. *Secondary modern schools* form the largest group of secondary schools. They give a general education, with a practical bias, closely related to the interests and environment of their pupils. For those pupils who can profitably follow them, many modern schools now offer courses of the type found in grammar and secondary technical schools. *Secondary technical schools* offer an education related to industry, commerce and agriculture, but still general and not vocational in purpose. Schools which provide all three, or any two, parts of education in separately organised 'streams' are known as *multilateral* or *bilateral* schools. Some local education authorities have established *comprehensive schools* providing all types of secondary education, without separate streaming, for all, or most of, the children of a district. In urban areas such schools tend to be larger than the other types of school and may have as many as 2,000 pupils.

Each local education authority decides how the selection shall be made for its secondary schools: generally speaking, this selection depends upon an assessment of the child's ability as shown in the primary school, often coupled with objective tests taken at about 11 years of age, which are commonly known as 'the eleven plus'. Local education authorities are constantly experimenting with methods of selection which will minimise any strain on children or their parents.

Most grammar school pupils remain at school until they are 16 years old, some until they are 17, 18 or 19 years old. Most secondary modern pupils at present leave at the age of 15, but the number of pupils remaining at school beyond the minimum leaving age has been increasing steadily for some years.

In Northern Ireland there are *grammar schools*, *secondary intermediate schools*, which are the equivalent of the secondary modern schools in England and Wales, and *technical intermediate schools*, which offer the same facilities as secondary technical schools in England and Wales.

Scottish secondary schools fall into two main categories, those providing courses extending normally to three years, generally called *junior secondary*

schools, and those providing courses of four, five or six years, known as *senior secondary schools*. In each type of school the courses are intended to provide a general education, but they are differentiated in character to suit the varying needs and abilities of the pupils, and include literary, commercial, boys' technical, domestic and rural courses. While some schools are purely junior secondary and some purely senior secondary there are also many schools of the comprehensive type, traditional in Scotland, in which all kinds of courses, both junior secondary and senior secondary, are provided.

Promotion from the primary to the secondary schools takes place usually between the ages of $11\frac{1}{2}$ and $12\frac{1}{2}$. The fitness of pupils to profit from the various types of secondary course is assessed on the basis of teachers' estimates of attainment, intelligence tests, and attainment tests, with due regard to the wishes of the parents. There is provision for the reconsideration of original allocations if, later, transfer to another course appears to be necessary.

Special Schools

Special educational treatment, either in special schools or otherwise, is provided between the ages of 5 (or less) and 16 for children who require it on account of any physical or mental handicap, including maladjustment. There are about 970 special schools in the United Kingdom, including hospital schools, day and boarding schools, and boarding homes for handicapped children attending ordinary schools.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland there are ten categories of handicapped pupils for whom local education authorities must provide special educational treatment: blind, partially sighted, deaf, partially deaf, delicate, educationally subnormal, epileptic, maladjusted, physically handicapped, and children suffering from speech defects. (There is no separate category for the delicate in Scotland.)

Independent Schools

All independent schools in England and Wales must be registered with the Ministry of Education, in Scotland with the Registrar of Independent Schools and in Northern Ireland with its Ministry of Education.

The largest and most important of the independent schools in Britain are known as public schools, although not all schools classed as public schools are independent (those which are not are mostly direct-grant schools) and public schools form only a minority of all independent schools. (These schools should not be confused with the State-supported public schools in Scotland.)

The *public school* for boys is a characteristic English institution which has made a notable contribution to English education. Many public schools date from the sixteenth century or even earlier, and most have some income from endowments. Each is controlled by its own board of governors. Public schools have emphasised the importance of character-building, and in these schools were developed the prefect system, whereby day-to-day discipline is largely maintained by the pupils themselves, and the house system, whereby a school is divided into groups of about 50 pupils, each under the care of a housemaster. The public school is also characterised by a high

staffing ratio and a high proportion of pupils doing advanced work. A public school is often, although not necessarily, a boarding school. The usual age of entry to the independent public schools for boys is 13 and the leaving age about 18. There are some girls' public schools modelled to a certain extent on the public schools for boys. Independent schools also include *preparatory schools*, many of them boarding schools, for boys aged from about 8 to 13 years, most of whom are intending to enter public schools; there are some similar schools for girls.

There is also a wide range of other day and boarding schools covering every age group and grade of education and every variety of educational method. Some of these schools are owned and managed, often under a trust deed, by independent non-profit-making bodies. Others are privately owned by proprietors for whom the running of the school provides a living.

Secondary School Examinations

There is no national leaving examination in England and Wales, but secondary school pupils and candidates not attending school may take an examination known as the General Certificate of Education (GCE). This examination, which is on a single subject and not a grouped subject basis (i.e. no subject is obligatory and individual subjects may be taken at different times), is conducted at 'ordinary' and 'advanced' levels. Most candidates for the ordinary level are about 16 years of age, although many take it earlier, at the discretion of their head teacher. Most grammar school pupils and an increasing number from other secondary schools take the ordinary examination, and passes in various subjects are widely accepted for entry to courses of vocational training. The advanced examination is at university entrance level (supplemented, since 1963, by special papers to help university authorities in selecting students) and is accepted also for purposes of entry to many forms of professional training.

From 1965 pupils who have completed five years' secondary education but who are not taking GCE may take the Certificate of Secondary Education examination; this will be on a single-subject basis and will be controlled by teachers serving in the schools providing candidates.

In Scotland courses in senior secondary schools lead to examinations conducted by the Scottish Education Department. School pupils in the fourth year of secondary courses sit an examination at 16 years for the award of passes on the Ordinary grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education, and pupils in the fifth year can obtain passes on the Higher grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education. Examinations at both grades are open to candidates who have left school.

In Northern Ireland candidates may take the GCE, as in England and Wales, or examinations based on group subjects—the Junior Certificate Examination, at about the age of 14 and the Senior Certificate Examination at about the age of 17.

Broadcasting and Visual Aids

The School Broadcasting Department of the British Broadcasting Corporation sends out 60 sound transmissions a week which reach more than 29,000

schools in the United Kingdom, over 70 per cent of the possible total. Television broadcasts to schools were begun in 1957 by both the British Broadcasting Corporation and Associated Rediffusion Limited. In June 1963 over 5,000 schools were equipped to receive the television programmes. Neither sound nor television broadcasting attempts to cover the whole school curriculum or to replace the teacher; the purpose is to supplement existing work in the schools. Other visual aids to education—films, film strips, wall charts, pictures, and models—are being used increasingly in Britain's schools.

Since the autumn of 1962 the BBC has broadcast special sound and television programmes for students taking general courses at technical colleges and colleges of further education. Early in 1963 educational programmes for adults were introduced by the BBC and by two of the independent television companies.

Religion in Schools

In England and Wales all children in county or voluntary schools receive religious instruction and take part in a daily corporate act of worship unless their parents object. In county schools, and in certain circumstances in voluntary schools, religious instruction of an undenominational Christian character is given. In all kinds of voluntary school there is opportunity for denominational instruction. In county schools in Northern Ireland clergy have a right of access to give religious instruction to children of their denomination for a limited period each week. In Scotland, subject to safeguards for the individual conscience, matters relating to religious instruction are in the hands of the school managers, but there are a number of denominational schools conducted by education authorities.

Services in the school chapel and religious teaching are an essential part of the life and education of the independent public schools and at most of these schools conform to the teaching of a particular church (in the majority of cases, Anglican).

Health and Welfare of School Children

Physical education, including organised games, is a part of the curriculum of all schools, and considerable attention is given to health education.

The School Health Service provides regular medical examination and certain free treatment for all children attending schools maintained by local education authorities. Treatment facilities include dental clinics and child guidance centres. (There are also child guidance clinics in the National Health Service.) In Northern Ireland the School Health Service is operated by the health authorities.

Milk (normally one-third of a pint a day) is given free to all school children who wish to have it, and the School Meals Service provides a daily dinner at a subsidised price (remitted where there is need) to just over half the pupils in county and voluntary schools. Education authorities have power to provide free transport for children who live more than a reasonable distance from the schools which they attend; this distance is defined as two miles for

those under 8 years and three miles for those over 8 years (11 years in Northern Ireland).

School Building

Local education authorities are responsible for providing the schools and other buildings needed for public education in their areas. The central departments exercise control by approving annual building programmes, framing regulations, fixing cost limits and approving or rejecting the authorities' plans; they also offer guidance to authorities by means of 'building bulletins' and in other ways.

An extensive building programme for education has been undertaken in Britain since 1947. In 1959 the Government announced a school building programme for the five years 1960–65 amounting in value to about £300 million in England and Wales and £65 million in Scotland. By the spring of 1963, over 6,000 new post-war schools had been completed in England and Wales, over 700 more were under construction, and extensions had been made to a very large number of existing schools; but much remains to be done. In Northern Ireland 389 post-war schools had been completed by the end of 1962.

To help voluntary schools to keep pace with county schools in the standard of their buildings, the Education Act, 1959, raised the rate of grant for alterations, improvements and external repairs to 75 per cent of the approved cost. With a few exceptions, the schools affected are Church of England or Roman Catholic aided schools. Grants may also be made for building new aided secondary schools needed for children from aided primary schools which existed on 15th June, 1959. Similar provisions for grants of 65 per cent of the approved costs of voluntary schools' building and repairs have existed in Northern Ireland since 1948.

Advantage is being taken of the opportunity afforded by the extensive school building programme to introduce new ideas and methods in the design and construction of schools. Several education authorities in some cases working together in 'consortia' have successfully developed systems employing prefabricated structures and component parts. New schools are light and airy, with an imaginative use of colour and generous provision of practical rooms and space for outdoor games.

UNIVERSITIES

There are 27 universities in the United Kingdom: 21 in England, four in Scotland,¹ the University of Wales, and the Queen's University of Belfast in Northern Ireland.

The English universities are: Birmingham, Bristol, Cambridge, Durham, Exeter, Hull, Keele, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, London, Manchester, Newcastle upon Tyne, Nottingham, Oxford, Reading, Sheffield, Southampton,

¹In June 1963 the Royal College of Science and Technology, Glasgow, received Government approval for full university status and is now applying for a Royal Charter.

and the new Universities of Sussex, at Brighton (opened in October 1961), of York and of East Anglia, at Norwich (both opened in 1963). The only other degree-giving institution (in Arts and Theology) is St. David's College at Lampeter, Wales. Plans have been approved for the establishment of the Universities of Warwick, at Coventry (planned to be opened in 1965), Kent at Canterbury, Essex at Colchester, and Lancaster. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge date from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and the Scottish Universities of St. Andrew's, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. All the other universities were founded in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge are each composed of a number of residential colleges. The other universities in Britain are in the main non-residential and most are non-collegiate. Those composed of groups of largely autonomous colleges are London, Durham, St. Andrew's, and the University of Wales.

The education departments have no jurisdiction over the universities, and their relations with them are concerned mainly with the training of school teachers, the provision of extra-mural education, and the award of scholarships from public funds. The universities receive aid from the State mainly in the form of direct grants, in Great Britain from the Treasury and in Northern Ireland from the Ministry of Finance, made on the advice of the University Grants Committee, a committee appointed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer from people with wide experience of schools and universities or experience in industry.

The proportion of university income provided by the Exchequer is increasing and in 1961-62 was 70·5 per cent for Great Britain. Another 2·1 per cent was contributed by local authorities, 9 per cent by fees, and the balance by endowments and other sources. Expenditure from public funds on the universities, including capital grants and awards to university students, has more than doubled in the past five years to over £121 million in 1962-63. It is expected to rise to over £165 million in 1966-67.

Students

Admission to the universities is by examination and selection; there is no religious test and no colour bar. Women are admitted on equal terms with men, but at Cambridge their numbers are limited by statute. The general proportion of men to women students is three to one; at Oxford it is six to one, and at Cambridge ten to one.

Despite recent expansion programmes, applications for places at universities still exceed the number available. At the beginning of the academic year 1962-63 there were 121,000 full-time university students in the United Kingdom. This total, more than double the pre-war figure, is to be further expanded (see p. 41).

Scholarships and Other Awards

Scholarships and other awards are now very widely available, for it is the national educational policy that no able boy or girl shall be prevented by lack of means from taking an advanced course at a university or elsewhere.

About 80 per cent of university students in Great Britain are aided from public or private funds.

In England and Wales, and in Scotland, all British students with certain qualifications are eligible for an award from public funds in order to attend full-time at a university, teacher-training college or other major further education establishment. By the Education Act, 1962, the award system has been simplified and established on a national basis; it is now the duty of local education authorities to provide all grants for university students and students taking comparable courses. In Scotland students' allowances for such courses are awarded by the Scottish Education Department. An award depends upon the income of the student or his parents.

A number of studentships for postgraduate study in arts subjects are offered annually by the Ministry of Education and the Scottish Education Department. Postgraduate awards to scientists and technologists are made by the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research and the Agricultural and Medical Research Councils, which awarded over 3,000 studentships in 1963.

In Northern Ireland university and further education scholarships, which may supplement grants from other sources, are awarded by the local education authorities. Postgraduate awards and teacher-training scholarships are given by the Ministry of Education.

Studies and Degrees

Courses in arts and science are offered by all universities, and at nearly all universities courses are available in one or more applied sciences. At the beginning of the academic year 1962–63, 43 per cent of full-time university students in Great Britain were taking arts courses and 57 per cent were studying science or technology (including medicine).

University degree courses generally extend over three or four years, though in medicine five or six years are required. The first degree of Bachelor (Master in Scotland) is awarded on the completion of such a course, depending on satisfactory examination results. Further study or research is required at the modern universities for the degree of Master and by all universities for that of Doctor. Actual degree titles vary according to the practice of each university. Diplomas and certificates are awarded after shorter courses in some subjects.

The tutorial system of individual tuition to supplement the lecture system is a traditional and valued feature of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge; it has been developed to some extent in the other universities and colleges of Britain.

Most members of the academic staffs devote time to research, and at all universities there are postgraduate students engaged in research. There has been an expansion particularly of research in science and technology in recent years.

University Expansion

The universities of Britain are expanding rapidly to meet the need of a modern democracy for a highly educated population and the particular need, in a technical age, for scientists and technologists. The number of full-time

students in universities in Great Britain is being increased from 117,000 in 1962-63 to 150,000 by 1966-67. It is planned to provide another 20,000 places by 1973-74. About two-thirds of the additional students who are expected to be in the universities will be students of science or technology. In Northern Ireland the number of full-time students increased from 2,392 in 1948-49 to over 4,000 in 1962-63.

An extensive building programme is in progress to provide for the increased number of students. Part of the cost is met from Exchequer funds administered by the University Grants Committee. Further sums are raised by the universities themselves.

Of the major projects included in the annual programmes for the period 1960-63 about 56 per cent of expenditure is for buildings to accommodate teaching and research in the various faculties, including about 44 per cent for science subjects and technology. The remaining 44 per cent is for general service buildings, such as halls of residence, student unions, refectories and libraries.

In Northern Ireland over £3 million was spent on building projects between 1955 and 1962 and further expansion at the rate of £750,000 a year is planned.

FURTHER EDUCATION

Outside the universities there is a great variety of further education, full-time and part-time, for those of all ages who have left school. Local education authorities are required to secure such provision either directly or by aiding voluntary bodies and institutions. Vocational and non-vocational courses at all levels and in all subjects are available in technical, commercial and art colleges and in agricultural and evening institutes. These courses may lead to a wide variety of qualifications ranging from external university degrees and the highest technological awards to craftsmen's certificates, or they may offer opportunities for pursuing leisure-time interests. In the year 1962-63 there were some 158,000 full-time students at the technical and commercial colleges (excluding art colleges and agricultural institutes) in the United Kingdom and about 1½ million part-time students. Nearly a million other students attend evening institutes.

Technical Education

Within the field of further education, facilities for technical education have been greatly expanded recently and the Government is promoting further development. The expansion is being helped by sharing the cost among all local education authorities. The Government is gradually implementing measures for a major re-organisation of education in technical colleges in Great Britain, providing for greater continuity between school and technical college education, a broadening of technical education and a closer adaptation of the system to the needs of industry.

The largest group of students attending technical colleges (537,000 in the United Kingdom in 1961-62) are young employees and apprentices who

are released by employers for study, usually on one day a week; day-release study is often supplemented by attendance at evening classes. A wide variety of craft courses is available for young workers in various trades and occupations leading to appropriate qualifications at the end of a course of three to five years. Courses of a more professional character which are suitable for technicians or for those who aim ultimately at membership of a professional institution are also provided, leading to the National Certificates approved by joint committees representative of the education departments and the appropriate professional body (for example, the Institution of Mechanical Engineers). Such courses are normally at two levels, ordinary and higher. Under schemes now being worked out most courses for the Ordinary Certificate are to last two years and students usually follow them between the ages of 16 and 19. The Higher Certificate requires a further two years' part-time study and is generally considered to reach a level corresponding to a pass degree in the subject concerned.

Full-time courses are taken by large numbers of younger students who leave school to enter secretarial or clerical work and also as an introduction to apprenticeship. But the most important group of full-time students are those following advanced courses leading to an external degree of the University of London, to the Higher National Diploma (awarded by joint committees in the same way as the Higher National Certificates) or to the Diploma in Technology (a national qualification first awarded in 1958). The Diploma in Technology (Dip. Tech.) is granted on the successful completion of an approved course in a technical college and is equivalent in standard to a university honours degree. It is administered by the National Council for Technological Awards, an autonomous body set up by the Minister of Education in 1955. The council has also instituted an award higher than the diploma—Membership of the College of Technologists (MCT).

The form of advanced full-time course which is rapidly gaining favour is the 'sandwich' course. This lasts from three to five years and consists of periods usually of three or six months spent alternately in studying full-time in a technical college and in gaining practical experience in industry; the majority of Diploma in Technology courses are sandwich courses. In the academic year 1962–63 there were some 16,000 sandwich course students. It is through a major increase in the number of students taking sandwich courses that the technical colleges are expected to achieve a 50 per cent increase in the output of advanced students.

There is a growing demand for courses of postgraduate standard, whether in technical subjects or in management studies, in technical colleges for students who have already obtained a first degree, a diploma, or a Higher National Certificate. A wide range of advanced short courses of a very specialised nature is also offered for senior technical staffs engaged in industry.

Under this system there is a great flexibility in the arrangement of courses. As a result, young people can start courses at various ages on leaving school and can attain the highest qualification to which their abilities entitle them.

At present, in England and Wales there are 432 technical colleges (other than art colleges, for which see p. 45) that provide for full-time students, besides 162 others which take part-time students only. The colleges vary

greatly in size, range of subjects, level of work and type of course. The largest has a total of some 14,000 students on the roll. The large colleges usually offer a wide variety of subjects, covering the basic technologies and the fundamental sciences. Colleges are organised in four broad groups:

- (1) *Local Colleges* (350), providing mainly part-time courses, some (lasting two to five years) leading to craftsman and technician qualifications such as Ordinary National Certificates and City and Guilds of London Institute Certificates;
- (2) *Area Colleges* (165), providing also some advanced courses from two to four years in duration for students starting at 18 or 19 years of age, and leading to Higher National Certificates and Diplomas;
- (3) *Regional Colleges* (25), covering wider areas than the local and area colleges, and doing a substantial amount of advanced work, including full-time and sandwich courses; and
- (4) *Colleges of Advanced Technology* (10), concentrating entirely on advanced work, including postgraduate and research work. They comprise the following: the Birmingham College of Technology; the Bradford Institute of Technology; the Welsh College of Advanced Technology, Cardiff; Loughborough College of Technology; the Royal College of Advanced Technology, Salford; the Bristol College of Technology; and, in London, the Battersea, Brunel, Chelsea and Northampton Colleges of Advanced Technology.

There are also six *National Colleges*, which have been established to provide advanced courses for the particularly specialised techniques of certain industries. These include colleges such as those for Rubber Technology and Food Technology and the National Foundry College; they are managed by independent bodies and receive grants directly from the Ministry of Education.

Scotland has 16 *Central Institutions* for further education, of which seven are technical colleges. Six of these have full-time courses leading to their own diploma or associateship and in some the greater part of the work is full-time. The full-time courses are of three or four years' duration and comparable in scope and standard to university degree courses. There are close ties between the central institutions and the universities. The central institutions, working on a regional basis, are supported by some 80 local technical colleges, offering full-time and part-time day courses, and by evening classes at local centres. Twenty-four new colleges are expected to open in the early 1960s; of these, six had been opened by July 1963.

In Northern Ireland the system of technical education is similar to that in England and Wales and includes courses leading to National Certificates. The Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland awards junior and senior trade scholarships to apprentices, to enable them to follow full-time courses of study at the Belfast College of Technology and the Lisburn Technical College. The junior course lasts five months and the senior course eight months.

Most of the technical colleges and other further education establishments in the United Kingdom are either maintained or aided from public funds. Tuition fees are therefore moderate, and often nominal for young people under 18 years of age. Many full-time students are helped by awards from

local education authorities. The awards are assessed to cover tuition fees and a maintenance grant, but parents who can afford to contribute towards the cost are required to do so. There are also some scholarships available from endowments, and others are awarded under schemes organised by particular industries or companies for the most promising of their young workers.

Art Education

There are 15 regional colleges of art in the United Kingdom, all of which offer courses in most branches of art and a varying range of crafts,¹ and there are schools of art in nearly all the larger towns. In London, the most notable of these schools and colleges are the Royal College of Art (a national college) and the Central School of Arts and Crafts of the London County Council, in both of which the emphasis is on industrial design, and the Slade School of Fine Arts in the University of London. At the Royal Academy Schools, founded in 1768, all instruction is provided free by Royal Academicians.

The leading academic institutions for the teaching and study of the history of art are the Courtauld Institute of the University of London, the Department of Classical Art and Archaeology in University College, London, and the Warburg Institute (also a part of London University) which provides facilities for research on the character and history of the classical tradition.

Art has a place in the curriculum of every type of school, and the Society for Education through Art, among its other activities, encourages the purchase by schools of original works of art, by organising an annual Pictures for Schools exhibition. The Arts Council operates a loan scheme for reproduction of works of art which is used extensively in schools.

Commercial and Management Education

Commercial education is provided in local authority commercial and technical colleges, in independent colleges and by bodies organising correspondence courses. More than half the candidates taking professional examinations in commercial subjects do so through correspondence courses.

Until recently provision for commercial education was almost entirely by part-time evening courses, few of which were above intermediate level. In line with recent developments in other spheres of technical education, in 1962 new commercial courses were introduced in technical and commercial colleges in England, Wales and Northern Ireland. These lead to the Ordinary and Higher National Certificate in Business Studies; a more advanced course for full-time or sandwich course students leads to a new qualification, the Higher National Diploma in Business Studies, which is equivalent in standard to a university pass degree. The Scottish Council for Commercial Education awards senior and advanced commercial certificates to students aiming at a professional career in commerce. In 1963 a Certificate in Office Studies for young entrants to clerical and other non-technical posts was introduced in England, Wales and Scotland.

¹From 1963 a three-year course will lead to a diploma in Art and Design (considered the equivalent of a university first degree).

Management studies are provided by universities and technical colleges, by individual companies or by trade and industrial federations. Certain independent colleges specialise in management training. Several universities have introduced business studies into the curriculum, and throughout the country over 100 technical colleges provide courses under the schemes administered jointly by the British Institute of Management and the education departments. In 1961 a postgraduate Diploma in Management Studies was introduced into technical colleges. In Scotland courses leading to the Certificate of Business Administration are provided for students in junior supervisory positions. In Northern Ireland also there is a Diploma in Management Studies.

An Advisory Council on Management Education for the United Kingdom was established in 1961 to keep under review provision for management education and to advise interested bodies.

Adult Education

Adult education (non-vocational study, outside the universities, for those who have left school) is organised by local education authorities (sometimes in association with voluntary bodies) in evening institutes, schools of art, adult education centres, community centres and youth clubs. Many of the classes are practical, but there are also wide opportunities for academic study at all levels. Voluntary organisations, such as the National Federation of Women's Institutes and the National Union of Townswomen's Guilds, offer courses in handicrafts and other subjects to their members; the local education authorities usually supply the teachers.

In general, courses at the highest levels in arts subjects are provided by the extra-mural departments of the universities, many of which have full-time staff appointed for this purpose and can call on the services of other members of the university staff; by the Workers' Educational Association, which also employs organising tutors and in many regions works in close collaboration with the university extra-mural departments; and by other voluntary bodies. In 1961-62, 210,000 students in England and Wales attended such courses, which are grant-aided directly by the Ministry of Education and, in many cases, are assisted financially and in other ways by local education authorities; 4,000 students attended similar courses in Northern Ireland.

Voluntary bodies with a particular viewpoint, such as the National Council of Labour Colleges and the Co-operative Union, also organise adult education courses without grant-aid. Six residential colleges (five in England and Wales and one in Scotland) directly aided by the education departments offer one-year or two-year cultural, non-vocational courses for adult students. In addition, there are about 30 other residential colleges where students can take short courses of a similar kind lasting for a few days or a few weeks. These are maintained or aided by local education authorities.

The National Institute of Adult Education provides in London a centre of information and research for adult education, as well as a channel of co-operation and consultation for the many organisations in England and

Wales which are interested in the subject. It is assisted by a grant from the Ministry of Education. There is a corresponding body in Scotland, the Scottish Institute of Adult Education.

Local education authorities can provide *community centres* for urban areas; these centres normally supply facilities for both vocational and non-vocational classes for the further education of young people and adults. The centres are usually managed by community associations, many of which are affiliated to the National Federation of Community Associations. Similar classes in rural areas are held in village halls and a variety of other premises by local education authorities and voluntary bodies; in Cambridgeshire there are nine 'village colleges', which combine facilities for secondary and adult education, and similar 'colleges' have been opened in Leicestershire, Peterborough and Derbyshire.

Financial assistance is given by the education departments to local voluntary organisations towards the capital cost of community centres, village halls, playing fields and similar facilities for social and physical recreation for adults.

OTHER CULTURAL INFLUENCES

There is no Minister of Culture or Ministry of Fine Arts in Britain, but both central and local government bodies play a part in promoting and sustaining the arts and cultural activities.

Central Government interest is expressed mainly through the provision of grants to the Arts Council,¹ the British Council,² the British Film Institute, the Council of Industrial Design and other organisations, besides museums and art galleries. Government expenditure includes financial assistance to preserve historic buildings and their contents.

Local authorities may use part of their revenue from rates for expenditure on the arts; they also have powers which permit capital expenditure on new buildings for the arts, and can make grants to schools of art, music and drama. As a rule local councils refrain from actual management of orchestras and theatre companies but they often provide the arenas for the performance of music or drama.

There are in all about 900 museums and art galleries open to the public in the United Kingdom, though many are only small collections or merely a few rooms set aside in a public building for the display of local treasures. Great libraries include that of the British Museum, the National Library of Scotland, and that of Wales. The public libraries of Britain maintain a service throughout the country, administered by 548 public library authorities;

¹The Arts Council of Great Britain, established under Royal Charter in 1946; its main duties are to increase the accessibility of the fine arts to the public, to improve the standard of execution in the fine arts, and to advise and to co-operate with Government departments, local authorities and other organisations on any matter connected with these aims. The corresponding body in Northern Ireland is the Arts Council of Northern Ireland.

²The British Council, founded in 1934, exists to promote a wider knowledge of the United Kingdom and the English language overseas and to develop closer cultural relations with other countries.

together these authorities hold about 75 million books and make over 440 million loans a year.

The two broadcasting authorities, the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Independent Television Authority (ITA) through their television and, in the case of the BBC, sound broadcasting services, provide daily programmes which are accessible to almost the whole population and which contain music of all kinds, drama, discussion and information on current affairs, apart from their specifically educational programmes (see p. 37).

YOUTH SERVICES¹

THE OBJECT of the youth services in Britain is to provide for the leisure-time activities of young people under 21 years of age, and to offer them opportunities—complementary to those of home, formal education and work—for discovering and developing their personal resources, so that they may be better equipped to be responsible members of the community. Membership of youth organisations is voluntary and the facilities they offer are sufficiently varied to appeal to every type of boy and girl.

State and Voluntary Partnership

Responsibility for youth service in the United Kingdom is shared by the education departments, local education authorities, voluntary organisations and the Churches. There is no attempt to impose uniformity or to create any national youth organisation. A number of youth organisations have spontaneously developed over the last century, mainly by voluntary effort. In 1939 what is now called the Youth Service came into being as a partnership of voluntary organisations, local authorities and central Government.

The status of youth services as an essential part of the educational system of Great Britain was confirmed by the Education Act of 1944 and the Education (Scotland) Act of 1945; in Northern Ireland, youth welfare work is promoted under the Physical Training and Recreation Act of 1938, and the Youth Welfare, Physical Training and Recreation Act of 1962.

The education departments provide grants in aid of the administrative and training work of national voluntary youth organisations, towards the expense of training full-time youth leaders and towards the cost of premises and equipment of youth clubs provided by voluntary bodies.

Local education authorities co-operate with voluntary organisations in their areas: most give some financial help and lend premises and equipment; most also employ youth organisers to help in the promotion and encouragement of youth work. Where voluntary services are considered inadequate, local authorities themselves organise youth centres and clubs. Most local authorities have appointed youth committees on which official and voluntary bodies are represented.

In addition to grants received from the State and local authorities, voluntary organisations may receive help for special projects from charitable trusts, notably from the King George's Jubilee Trust² (see p. 51). The greater part of the funds of the voluntary organisations is, however, raised by their own efforts.

Since 1960 developments in the youth service have been greatly influenced by the recommendations of a committee set up to examine the service, under the chairmanship of the Countess of Albemarle. On the advice of the newly formed Youth Service Development Council, the Ministry of Education has

¹For fuller information, see COI reference paper R. 5506, *Youth Services in Britain*.

²During the years 1953–60 the King George VI Foundation distributed nearly £1.2 million for projects from the memorial fund in remembrance of the King.

made larger grants towards the headquarters expenses of national voluntary youth organisations and special grants for voluntary projects, some of which are experimental; has authorised a building programme for the period 1960–63 at an estimated cost of £7 million; and, to supplement existing facilities, has established a national training college at Leicester for youth leaders.

A Standing Consultative Council on Youth Service in Scotland, with functions similar to those of the Youth Service Development Council for England and Wales, was set up by the Secretary of State for Scotland in 1959. In 1963 permanent arrangements for training in youth leadership for full-time youth leaders and organisers were made. Two types of course are available: a two-year basic training course and a two-term course for those already having certain prescribed qualifications for the work. More money is being made available from central funds to national voluntary organisations in Scotland. A White Paper on the development of the Youth Service was presented to the Northern Ireland Parliament in 1961. This did not propose any change in the general pattern of the Youth Service but local education authorities were urged to take a more active part in youth work than they had previously done. Such changes as required statutory authority were given effect in the Youth Welfare, Physical Training and Recreation Act (Northern Ireland), 1962. In Northern Ireland the existing Youth Committee was replaced by the Youth and Sports Council as part of moves to expand the part played in youth welfare by the local education authorities and sports organisations.

The Voluntary Organisations

The voluntary organisations vary greatly in character, since nearly all of them were formed to serve specific groups of young people, but most of them provide educational and religious activities as well as social and recreational pursuits for their members, and all of them seek to inculcate high ideals of personal conduct and service to the community.

Twenty-seven national voluntary youth organisations with memberships of at least 10,000 are constituent members of the Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations, a consultative body which takes action only in the name of its member bodies and with their consent. A further 22 bodies are associate or observer members, for example, the Church of England Youth Council, which represents some 200,000 young people who are members of clubs sponsored by the Church of England. The corresponding body in Scotland is the Scottish Standing Conference of Voluntary Youth Organisations, in Northern Ireland the Standing Conference of Youth Organisations, and in Wales the Standing Conference for Wales of Voluntary Youth Organisations.

These major organisations have a total United Kingdom membership of nearly 3 million young people under 21.

Among the youth organisations with a mainly religious origin and purpose are the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA) and Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), the Boys' Brigade, the Church Lads' Brigade, the Girls' Life Brigade, the Girls' Friendly Society, Girls' Guildry, the Methodist Association of Youth Clubs, the Salvation Army Youth

Organisations, the Catholic Young Men's Society of Great Britain, the National Federation of Catholic Youth Clubs, the Young Christian Workers, the Grail, and the Association of Jewish Youth.

The Boy Scouts Association and Girl Guides Association have world-wide affiliations; they are undenominational and non-political, and were founded by Lord Baden-Powell in 1908 and 1910 to develop character and good citizenship in boys and girls.

The National Association of Boys' Clubs, and the National Association of Youth Clubs, are concerned mainly with the 14 to 20 age-group. Each affiliated club has its own rules, but all try to give their members opportunities to take part in physical, mental and social activities, to develop their capacities and grow to maturity as individuals and members of society.

The National Association of Training Corps for Girls comprises the Girls' Training Corps, the Women's Junior Air Corps and the Girls' Nautical Training Corps; all wear uniform and formal discipline is encouraged. The pre-Service organisations for boys (the Combined Cadet Force, Sea Cadet Corps, Army Cadet Force and Air Training Corps), combine social, educational and physical development with training for possible entry into the armed forces.

The National Federation of Young Farmers' Clubs in England and Wales, the Scottish Association of Young Farmers' Clubs, Northern Ireland Young Farmer Clubs, in addition to encouraging interest in agriculture and appreciation of country life, provide training in the arts of citizenship and develop ability to serve the community.

The Welsh League of Youth (Urdd Gobaith Cymru) aims to 'develop Christian citizenship among the youth of Wales', and its work takes full account of the Welsh background of its members.

The Youth Hostels Associations in England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland have a network of hostels for walkers and cyclists, particularly intended for young people of limited means. They seek to promote knowledge and love of the countryside, and are closely linked with each other and with similar organisations in other countries.

Adult organisations with youth sections include the British Red Cross Society, St. John Ambulance Brigade and the political parties.

Other Organisations Concerned with Youth Work

King George's Jubilee Trust was established in 1935 by King George V, to promote the welfare of the younger generation. The trust fund originally consisted of the nation's gift of about £1 million, subscribed to mark the King's silver jubilee; the income has since been augmented by gifts, legacies and the trust's own appeal in 1960-61 (marking 25 years of its work). The fund, which now stands at £1.4 million, has disbursed £1.3 million to the headquarters of the principal voluntary youth organisations and to many local projects, particularly those of an experimental nature.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award is a scheme for young people which is operated by local authorities, schools, youth organisations, industrial firms and other bodies, and is designed as a challenge to boys and girls to reach certain standards of achievement in three progressive stages in leisure-

time activities. The scheme for boys between the ages of 14 and 19 covers sections on public service, expeditions and pursuits and physical fitness. The scheme for girls between the ages of 14 and 20 is divided into sections on design for living, interests, and adventure and service.

The Outward Bound Trust maintains five schools for boys which offer 26-day character-building courses, based on adventure and testing experience. A similar school for girls, with modified courses, opened in the summer of 1963. About 4,500 boys and 850 girls take part each year.

The aims of the Central Council of Physical Recreation, the Scottish Council of Physical Recreation and the National Playing Fields Association bring them into touch with many youth organisations.

In addition to organisations on a nation-wide basis, there are a large number of town, district or village social clubs run by voluntary groups for general or particular purposes; photographic societies, folk dance, table tennis or jazz clubs, for instance. In small communities social clubs may not be specifically for young people but those with the more strenuous activities (for example, tennis clubs) usually have a high proportion of young people as members.

TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING AND HOUSING

BRITAIN is one of the most densely populated areas in the world and it is essential to plan land use if a satisfactory national distribution of employment and population is to be secured, agriculture safeguarded, the amenities of the countryside preserved, and the improvement of the places where people live and work sustained.

PLANNING IN GREAT BRITAIN

Administration

The Town and Country Planning Act, 1962 (which consolidated earlier planning legislation in England and Wales), and the Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act, 1947, are the principal Acts that govern the pattern of land use in Great Britain. They provide for the co-ordination of planning by means of development plans drawn up by local planning authorities and approved by the Minister of Housing and Local Government or the Secretary of State for Scotland; and they control development by making it subject, generally, to the permission of a local planning authority or of a central Government department. They also give extensive powers to public authorities to acquire and develop land for planning purposes, and deal with certain questions of amenity, for instance, the preservation of buildings of special historic or architectural interest, and of trees and woodlands, and the control of advertisement display. Compensation is paid for loss of development value through the refusal of planning permission and for the compulsory purchase of land.

Development Plans

Under the Town and Country Planning Acts, 1947, local planning authorities (in England and Wales, the councils of counties and county boroughs and, in some areas, joint planning boards; and in Scotland, councils of counties and of large burghs, and the councils of the two small burghs of St. Andrews and Thurso) were required to prepare and submit development plans for the whole of their areas to the Minister of Housing and Local Government and to the Secretary of State for Scotland respectively. Plans normally cover a period of about 20 years; they must be reviewed at least once in every five years, and may be extended and altered at any time so that they are kept up to date.

Green Belts

In order to restrict the further sprawl of the large built-up areas, to prevent adjacent towns merging into one another, and in some cases to preserve the special character of a town, the policy has been adopted of establishing 'green belts' around all or part of certain urban areas. Within a green belt

there is a general proscription against any new development except for a limited amount of building in existing villages, development to serve agriculture, and other special uses of land appropriate to a rural area.

New Towns

The New Towns Act, 1946, gives the Minister of Housing and Local Government and the Secretary of State for Scotland power to make an order designating any area of land (which may include any existing town or other centre of population) as the site of a proposed new town. The Minister then appoints a development corporation (consisting of a chairman, a deputy chairman and up to seven other members) to be responsible for the development of the new town. A master plan showing how the town is to be built is prepared, and this becomes the basis for development proposals, each of which covers a part of the town. Each proposal is submitted to the responsible Minister for approval.

The development corporations have powers in general (subject to the consent of the Minister of Housing and Local Government or the Secretary of State for Scotland) to acquire, by agreement or compulsory purchase, any land or property in the designated areas which is necessary for their purposes, or, in certain circumstances, land adjacent to or outside those areas, and they may provide houses, flats, commercial and industrial premises, estate roads and other buildings or services essential for the development of the towns.

The capital cost of developing the new towns (many of which are now making a profit) is advanced to the corporations from public funds and is repayable over a period out of the income from the property.

As each new town in England and Wales is substantially completed the development corporation is dissolved and, under the terms of the New Towns Act, 1959, its assets and liabilities are handed over to a central agency—the Commission for New Towns, which is responsible for maintaining and enhancing the value of the land entrusted to it.

Eighteen new towns have been, or are being established in Great Britain: 14 in England and Wales and four in Scotland. Eight of the new towns in England and Wales (Basildon and Harlow in Essex; Hemel Hempstead, Stevenage, Hatfield, and Welwyn in Hertfordshire; Crawley in Sussex; and Bracknell in Berkshire) are designed to help in absorbing excess population from the Greater London area; of the six others, Corby in Northamptonshire, Aycliffe and Peterlee in Durham, and Cwmbran in Monmouthshire are to serve the special needs of their areas, while Skelmersdale in Lancashire and Dawley in Shropshire are to meet the overspill needs of Liverpool and Birmingham respectively. The Scottish new towns (East Kilbride in Lanarkshire; Glenrothes in Fife; Cumbernauld in Dunbartonshire, and Livingston in West Lothian) will help in housing the surplus population from Glasgow. Livingston is also to be a focus for industrial activity in the central belt of Scotland. Proposals were announced in 1963 for three further new towns in England—at Runcorn, near Liverpool; at Redditch, near Birmingham; and, on a site to be selected, to take population from Manchester.

In Northern Ireland consideration is being given to the creation of a new city and the extension of certain existing towns.

The new towns represent a notable achievement in positive land use. They are generally recognised as one of the most successful post-war experiments, both socially and industrially, and as a profitable long-term investment. Many thousands of people have moved into the new towns during the past decade and to meet their needs an extensive building and civil engineering programme has provided houses, flats, factories, schools, shops, community centres, roads, water supplies and sewerage on a large scale.

Under the New Towns Act, 1946, Parliament approved a consolidated fund of £50 million to provide for advances to the development corporations for work on the new towns. This fund was increased by subsequent Acts and, under the 1959 Act, stands at £400 million. A total of about £330 million has been advanced to the corporations.

Town Development Schemes

The Town Development Act, 1952, makes provision for the relief of congestion in large industrial towns in England and Wales by encouraging the transfer of population and industry from these areas to places suitable for expansion. The Housing and Town Development (Scotland) Act, 1957, makes similar provision for Scotland.

National Parks

The National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act, 1949, provided that certain areas of beautiful country in England and Wales should become national parks, where the characteristic landscape would be safeguarded and facilities for open-air recreation provided or improved.

A National Parks Commission was set up by the Act and its work has resulted in the establishment of ten national parks: the Peak District, the Lake District, Snowdonia in North Wales, Dartmoor in Devon, the Pembrokeshire Coast, the North York Moors, the Yorkshire Dales, Exmoor in Devon and Somerset, Northumberland (comprising most of the upland country from the Cheviots in the north to the Roman Wall in the south), and the Brecon Beacons in South Wales. These parks cover a total area of 5,254 square miles, almost one-eleventh of the area of England and Wales.

There are no National Parks in Scotland but the National Parks Working Party, set up to consider the five areas recommended as national parks by the National Parks Committee, has submitted a report on each of them. These are: Loch Lomond—Trossachs; Glen Affric—Glen Cannich—Strath Farrar; Ben Nevis—Glen Coe—Black Mount; the Cairngorms; and Loch Torridon—Loch Maree—Little Loch Broom. Close supervision is being maintained over development in these areas by means of Scottish National Parks Direction.

The National Parks Commission also has power to designate areas in England and Wales outside the national parks as 'areas of outstanding natural beauty'. Designation does not mean that the general public has right of access. Local planning authorities must survey the extent to which land is already open to the public, and may increase it by means of agreements with

owners or by access orders towards the cost of which Government grants are available.

National Forest Parks

The Forestry Commission has formed, and opened to the public, seven National Forest Parks in some of the finest country in Britain: Argyll, Glen Trool, Glen More, and the Queen Elizabeth Forest Park in Scotland; the Forest of Dean and the Wye valley woods on the borders of England and Wales; Snowdonia in Wales; and the Border Forest Park (adjoining the Northumberland National Park to the westward), which includes forests on the borders of Northumberland and Cumberland in England and of Roxburgh in Scotland. Camping facilities are provided in all the parks.

Nature Conservancy

The responsibility for nature conservation rests with the Nature Conservancy, which derives its powers from the National Parks and Access to the Countryside Act, 1949. The object of conservation is to influence soils, water, vegetation and animal life by means of research, experiment and control. This entails the acquisition and management of a representative series of reserves.

The Nature Conservancy is responsible for 101 nature reserves in Great Britain, with a combined area of about 211,000 acres (by April 1963), of which over 58,800 acres comprise the Cairngorms, the largest reserve in Britain and one of the largest in Europe. Seven other areas (mostly in the north) are managed by local authorities, using their powers under the National Parks Act, in consultation with the Conservancy. Eleven forest nature reserves have also been set up.

Preservation of Amenities

Responsibility for the preservation of the historic, scenic and architectural beauties of Great Britain is vested mainly in the Minister of Housing and Local Government, the Secretary of State for Scotland, and the local planning authorities. The Ministers have the duty of compiling lists of buildings of special architectural or historic interest and have so far listed more than 103,400 buildings. Local authorities have special powers to prevent the demolition of such buildings and to control other works that would damage their character. The Ministry of Public Building and Works is also concerned, being responsible for the maintenance of royal parks and palaces, for the protection of ancient monuments (under the Ancient Monuments Acts), and for making grants (on the recommendation of the appropriate Historic Buildings Council¹) for the repair and maintenance of buildings of outstanding historic or architectural interest or their contents and for the upkeep of adjoining land. About 600 of the more important protected monuments in Britain are in the care of the Ministry; and grants totalling nearly £4¼ million have been made towards the cost of urgently needed repairs to nearly 900 historic buildings in England, Scotland and Wales.

¹Historic Buildings Councils have been constituted for England, Scotland, and Wales, to advise the Minister on the provision of grants from public funds towards repair and maintenance.

Under the Town and Country Planning Acts, 1947, local planning authorities have power (a) to protect trees and woodlands by means of tree preservation orders; (b) to prevent mineral workings becoming permanent eyesores by attaching suitable conditions to planning permissions; and (c) to restrict or regulate the display of advertisements in the interests of amenity or public safety. Local authorities are also empowered, under the Clean Air Act, 1956, to declare 'smoke control areas', in which the emission of smoke from chimneys constitutes an offence, and to make grants towards costs incurred by owners and occupiers of premises in these areas in making the necessary changes in their appliances.

Voluntary amenity societies, wholly dependent upon the support of their members, include: the Council for the Preservation of Rural England, founded in 1926 to organise concerted action to secure the protection of rural scenery and of town and country amenities from disfigurement or injury, and councils carrying out similar functions for Scotland and Wales; the Commons, Open Spaces and Footpaths Preservation Society; the Ramblers' Association; the Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings; the Pilgrim Trust; the National Trust for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty in England, Wales and Northern Ireland; and the National Trust for Scotland.

The Council for Nature (founded in 1958) is a grant-aided foundation of about 300 natural history societies and voluntary bodies concerned with nature conservation and represents the interests of some 80,000 naturalists at public inquiries on developments likely to threaten British flora and fauna.

PLANNING IN NORTHERN IRELAND

The Planning and Housing Act (Northern Ireland), 1931, provides for the preparation by local authorities of planning schemes for development or redevelopment of their areas. The Interim Development Act of 1944 enables people wishing to carry out development to do so without delay, while ensuring that such development shall conform to the provisions likely to be included in the planning scheme for the area. The provisions of the Acts brought all land in Northern Ireland under planning control and required every local authority to prepare a planning scheme for its area.

The committee on nature conservation in Northern Ireland was appointed in 1960 to consider the protection of the natural flora and fauna and the physical features of scientific interest in Northern Ireland, and to make recommendations on measures for their conservation and control, including the protection of wild life.

Northern Ireland's first forest park at Tollymore Park, Newcastle, County Down, was opened to the public in 1955. Situated at the foot of the Mountains of Mourne, it covers an area of 1,200 acres.

HOUSING

Between 1945 and the end of 1962 over $4\frac{1}{4}$ million new houses and flats were built. Despite this achievement much still remains to be done before all the housing problems facing the country are solved. The nationwide

shortage of housing accommodation which existed in 1945 as the result of enemy action, the gradual deterioration of old houses and the increase in the number of households, has been alleviated, but there are still serious shortages to be overcome in some areas, especially large cities. Other housing targets are the completion of the slum clearance programme, building more accommodation suitable for elderly people, eliminating overcrowded living conditions, providing for the increasing population and number of households and the modernisation and conversion of older houses.

Responsibility for the housing programme is borne by the Minister of Housing and Local Government in England and Wales, by the Secretary of State in Scotland and the Minister of Health and Local Government in Northern Ireland. The actual provision of housing accommodation in any area is the concern of the local authority, which is obliged to plan for new housing and slum clearance where necessary, to see that adequate standards are maintained in newly built and existing houses and to ensure, as far as possible, that housing conditions are satisfactory in that area. In selecting tenants for council dwellings local authorities give preference to families living in overcrowded or unsatisfactory conditions. In England and Wales and Northern Ireland the local housing authorities are the councils of county boroughs, boroughs (including metropolitan boroughs), urban districts and rural districts, the London County Council and the Common Council of the City of London. In Scotland all town and county councils are housing authorities.

There are over 17 million houses in Britain, just over 15 million in England and Wales, 1,670,000 in Scotland and about 395,000 in Northern Ireland. About $3\frac{3}{4}$ million of the houses in England and Wales, about 700,000 in Scotland and about 80,000 in Northern Ireland are owned by public authorities, that is about one house in four. Over $6\frac{1}{2}$ million houses, more than one in three, are in owner occupation; most of the remainder (mainly older houses) are rented from private landlords. Today one family in four lives in a post-war dwelling. Of houses and flats built since 1945, over 63 per cent were built by local authorities (that is, generally, by private builders under contract to local authorities). Since the restrictions on private building which were necessary during the shortages of the post-war period were abolished, in 1954, the proportion of building undertaken by private enterprise has risen steadily. In 1962 the total number of houses built was 313,643, of which 178,211 were privately sponsored.

The programme of house building is being accelerated; it is estimated that in Great Britain 110,000 additional houses are needed annually for the increasing population and number of households, and that over 750,000 slum houses remain to be cleared. Houses becoming time-worn year by year must be added to this total.

Local authorities are being encouraged to use systems of industrialised housing, with standardised components. These offer the advantages of very rapid construction on the site, greater independence of weather conditions, and the use of less skilled labour than traditional building methods require, an important factor in areas where there is a shortage of skilled building labour.

The Ministry of Housing and Local Government has set up offices in the north-east and the north-west of England to advise local authorities on methods of increasing their rate of house building and slum clearance. As the slums are dealt with, a policy is being drawn up to renew the decaying areas in towns and demolish or improve the 4 million old houses, many of which are obsolescent. The Ministry is undertaking regional surveys of population trends and future needs for land as a basis for regional plans covering development over a period of 20 years.

New Building

Private enterprise is responsible for over half the housing being built today in Britain; the rest is built by local authorities, new towns development corporations, the Northern Ireland Housing Trust¹ and certain Government departments (for housing families of the armed forces or other services). Housing associations, which are non-profit-making bodies providing houses for letting rather than for sale, are increasing in number, as are self-help groups whose members build houses for their own occupation in their spare time. Local authority housing is normally built for letting; privately sponsored dwellings for owner occupation.

Most of the new dwellings in Britain are houses (usually of two storeys); the remainder are flats or maisonettes, mostly in blocks of from 2 to 16 storeys, although a few blocks may be higher. Accommodation in a house designed for a family of four or five people includes one or two living rooms, a kitchen, a store, a bathroom and a water closet and two or three bedrooms. A typical three-bedroom house built by a local authority in England and Wales in 1962 had a superficial area of about 906 square feet and cost £1,984 to build.

Control of building standards is the responsibility of the central departments, which issue manuals of guidance on design and layout for different types of houses and flats provided by local authorities. Research into building techniques and into new methods of house construction, as well as into the needs of families, is carried out by the Development Group of the Ministry of Housing and Local Government, the Building Research Centre, the architects' departments of major local authorities and the research groups in big constructional firms. All Government building research and development is co-ordinated by the Directorate of Research and Development at the Ministry of Public Building and Works.

Slum Clearance

Returns made by local housing authorities in 1955 indicated that there were about one million slum dwellings in Britain which ought to be cleared. In the six years 1957 to 1962, local authorities in England and Wales demolished or closed 350,825 unfit houses, involving about 976,042 occupants; while in Scotland 60,919 houses were demolished or closed during the

¹The Northern Ireland Housing Trust, a statutory body, was established in 1945 to erect houses for letting, to supplement building by local authorities. The trust has built about a quarter of Northern Ireland's post-war houses.

same period. In Northern Ireland about 3,600 dwellings were demolished or closed by local authorities in the four-year period 1959–62.

Well over half the 1,469 housing authorities in England and Wales should have completed their 1955 programmes by the end of 1965. Many of them, since the process of replacing unfit houses is a continuous one, have submitted further proposals for increased programmes. Within the next 10 years the great majority of them should have succeeded in getting rid of all their present slums. In certain areas, however, particularly the older industrial towns, and including Birmingham, Liverpool and Manchester, three of the biggest cities in the country, the proportion of unfit houses is so high that clearance will take much longer.

Housing Finance

The initial capital cost of houses built by or for local authorities is met by raising loans; current expenditure, including loan repayment and interest on loans, is met from rents, rates and where available Exchequer subsidies. Local authorities may raise loans for housing either in the open market or, where borrowing from private sources at normal rates of interest is impossible, by borrowing from the Public Works Loan Board.¹ Exchequer loans of up to a maximum of £25 million in England and Wales and £3 million in Scotland are available to approved housing associations in order to finance the building of houses to let at unsubsidised rents. Government proposals for encouraging the activities of housing associations were published² in May 1963. In Northern Ireland, local authorities, the Housing Trust and housing associations may borrow from the Government Loans Fund.

Loans to enable people to buy their houses by a system of instalment purchase are available from various sources, including building societies, insurance companies, industrial and provident societies and local authorities.

Building societies, of which there are about 730, are the most important of these agencies. They do not build houses themselves but provide long-term loans covering, usually, up to about 80 per cent of the value of the houses, on the security of property bought for owner-occupation.

Many local authorities operate a scheme whereby, for a house costing up to £2,500, they guarantee part of the loan made by a building society so that an advance greater than normal (up to 95 per cent of the value of the house in some cases) may be made to the purchaser. The Exchequer undertakes to share any liability local authorities may incur under this scheme. Local authorities also have power to make loans for the acquisition, conversion, improvement, repair and alteration of houses. Under the House Purchase and Housing Act, 1959, they may make loans of up to 100 per cent of the house's value.

Building Subsidies and Improvement Grants

Housing subsidies have been provided in Britain since 1919, when they were first introduced to facilitate the building of houses for letting at moderate

¹Which is financed by the Exchequer and acts as lender of last resort to local authorities which cannot borrow on reasonable terms on the market.

²*Housing*. Cmnd. 2050. HMSO.

rents. The present subsidies in England and Wales, payable annually for 60 years from the year of building completion, provide for a flexible system of general subsidy on all types of housing. The level of subsidy depends on the financial need of the housing authority. Authorities with inadequate resources receive a basic subsidy of £24 a year for each house built, which may be increased in stages to £40 for authorities with particularly low reserves. For other authorities the basic rate is £8. Additional subsidies exist for high flats and expensive sites.

Private owners in England and Wales can obtain Exchequer assistance for the improvement of houses built before 1945 or conversion of large houses or other buildings for housing. Cash grants may be made by local authorities, with Exchequer assistance, to people converting or improving existing buildings for housing at a cost of over £100 per dwelling. The grants may amount to half the cost, with a maximum grant of £400 for each dwelling. There are certain technical conditions which the dwellings as improved or converted must fulfil, to ensure that public money is spent only on property that will provide satisfactory accommodation for a sufficiently long period. Grants for similar work in houses owned by local authorities may also be paid by the Minister of Housing and Local Government, but on an annual basis over 20 years. In either case, the payment of grant is at the discretion of the local authority or the Minister, as the case may be.

Local authorities are, however, obliged to make grants called 'standard grants', for the provision in houses built before 1945 of a bath in a bathroom, hot-water supply, water closet, wash basin, and food store; these cash grants cover half the cost of the work, subject to a maximum grant of £155 or smaller sums if some of the five items already exist. Proposals to make it compulsory for landlords to provide these standard amenities in certain cases of rented housing were put forward by the Government in May 1963.¹ Similarly the Minister is obliged to make standard grants to local authorities, but again on an annual basis over 20 years. The Acts under which these improvement grants are available are the Housing (Financial Provisions) Act, 1958, the House Purchase and Housing Act, 1959, and the Housing Act, 1961. From 1949 to February 1963 over 625,000 grants had been made.

Building subsidies and improvement grants are also provided in Scotland and Northern Ireland; the amounts of subsidy are generally higher owing to different circumstances.

The average annual cost of housing subsidies in Britain has been over £100 million since 1954, some three-quarters of the total being paid by the Exchequer and about a quarter by local authorities.

Control of Rents

The first Act of Parliament to restrict rents was passed in 1915, when houses were in short supply because of war-time movement of population. Rent control was originally intended as a temporary measure, but was retained by successive Acts until 1957. During this period nearly all privately owned houses let unfurnished were subject to a system of rent control which gave the tenant a fixed rent and security of tenure.

¹In *Housing*. Cmnd. 2050. HMSO.

Since 1954 the Government has pursued a policy of progressive abolition of rent control on the grounds that the previous system was leading to deterioration and to wasteful use of the nation's stock of housing. Control of lettings by local authorities, New Town Development Corporations and certain housing associations and trusts ceased in that year. The Rent Act, 1957, released from rent control all dwellings with a rateable value over £40 in the London Metropolitan Police District and in Scotland and over £30 elsewhere; it freed from control all new lettings after 6th July, 1957, whatever the rateable value of the property. For those houses remaining within control, it laid down a maximum rent which was more in keeping with the current value of money and the costs of maintenance. Security of tenure for controlled tenants is retained under the Act.

Where houses or parts of houses within the rateable value limits for rent control are let with furniture or services provided by the landlord, a different system of control operates. If the tenant feels he is being overcharged, he can apply to a rent tribunal to review his rent. These tribunals are appointed and maintained by the Government (the Minister of Housing and Local Government and the Secretary of State for Scotland) but are independent, quasi-judicial bodies, from whose decisions there is no appeal, except on a point of law. The tribunal decides in each case what is a fair rent to fix for the accommodation and services provided. The rent so fixed is registered with the local authority for the district, or, in Scotland, with the tribunal, and any subsequent overcharging by the landlord is a punishable offence.

Somewhat similar measures of control and de-control apply in Northern Ireland.

EMPLOYMENT¹

THE STATE has a triple role in the sphere of employment. It is responsible for protective legislation, supports the voluntary system of industrial relations, and provides Government training and employment services. The Ministry of Labour is ultimately responsible for these functions in Great Britain, and the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance in Northern Ireland.

WORKING CONDITIONS

Safety

Employers have a duty at common law to take reasonable care of their employees and provide a safe system of working, while employees have a duty of care towards each other. In addition, minimum required standards of safety in certain kinds of workplaces or work are laid down under a number of statutes, some of which also deal with health and welfare. The statutes include: the Mines and Quarries Act, 1954; the Agriculture (Safety, Health and Welfare Provisions) Act, 1956; the Factories Act, 1961 (which consolidates earlier Acts); and the Offices, Shops and Railway Premises Act, 1961, which closely follows the Factories Act, 1961.

The provisions are endorsed through the Inspectorate of Factories, which forms part of the Ministry of Labour; the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate, which forms part of the Ministry of Power; and the Inspectorates of the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Department of Agriculture for Scotland. Safety legislation covering the main forms of transport protects transport workers, as well as members of the public, against accidents involving moving vehicles.

Health and Welfare

Local authorities, under the Public Health Acts, have power to regulate the provision of suitable sanitary accommodation in houses and at places of work and to treat workplaces which are dirty or badly ventilated or overcrowded as nuisances the abatement of which can be enforced. They are also responsible under the Shops Act, 1950, for seeing that shops in their area observe the requirements of the Act, which include a number of provisions relating to closing hours and to hours of work of young employees.

Factories, other industrial premises, offices, shops and railway premises must comply with the health and welfare requirements of the Factories Act or the Offices, Shops and Railway Premises Act. These include: with regard to health, the cleanliness of workrooms, adequate ventilation and suitable temperature and lighting, the avoidance of overcrowding and the provision of sanitary accommodation, and the protection of workers against inhaling harmful dust or fumes; with regard to welfare, the provision of washing

¹For fuller information on the matters dealt with in this section, see COI reference pamphlets RF.P. 5120, *Labour Relations and Conditions of Work in Britain*, and RF.P. 5119, *Government Employment and Training Services in Britain*.

facilities, lockers or other accommodation for outdoor clothing, drinking water, first aid, and adequate seating arrangements. On entry into employment in factories and docks, or on building operations, all young persons under 18 years of age must be medically examined by doctors appointed by the Chief Inspector of Factories and known as Appointed Factory Doctors, and they must be re-examined annually until they reach the age of 18. Boys employed in certain jobs involving night work are examined more frequently.

The far-reaching and detailed requirements of the Merchant Shipping Acts and the regulations made thereunder include specific provisions for the protection of merchant seamen.

The laws restricting the employment of children, young persons and women form an important part of legislation to protect the health and welfare of employees. National legislation, besides forbidding any employment of children under 13 years of age, forbids the employment of children under 15 years of age in any industrial undertaking; of women and young persons underground in mines and in certain other dangerous occupations (for example, those involving work with lead compounds); and of women in factories and workshops within one month of childbirth. It also limits and defines the permissible hours for children aged 13 and for young persons under 18 and for women in a number of industries and occupations. Local authorities, moreover, have wide powers under the Children and Young Persons Act, 1933, as well as by the Education Acts, 1944–48, which regulate hours and conditions of employment of children under 15 years within their areas within the limits of national legislation.

The above are the main legislative provisions relating to health and welfare at work, but it is essential to note that employers frequently achieve health and welfare standards considerably higher than those prescribed by law. They are helped to do this by the inspectorates, by Government departments and agencies, by employers' associations and trade unions and by expert voluntary bodies.

Industrial Health Services

In addition to the statutory requirements of the Factories Act, 1961, and of the Offices, Shops and Railway Premises Act, 1963, and of regulations under both Acts, a number of employers voluntarily maintain medical services for their employees. In premises under the Factories Act it is estimated that there are about 400 full-time and 4,000 part-time doctors employed, together with several thousand nurses and assistant nurses. There are also the 2,800 Appointed Factory Doctors who carry out the compulsory medical examinations under the Acts and Regulations.

Welfare

Welfare standards vary considerably from one firm to another. The amenities provided by large factories or offices depend partly on the employees' needs and desires. The requirements of a factory, or office or shop where the work is light, and where many employees are women or young persons, are

different from those of an iron foundry or steelworks, where much of the work is arduous and is undertaken by men. Progressive firms are careful to find out what their employees want, and welfare policy is often decided in consultation with the workers, through regular consultative machinery or by other means. An increasing number of firms in Britain pay part or all of the cost of clubs and sports grounds, operate retirement and sickness insurance schemes supplementing the State schemes, and afford training and educational facilities. Some have their own rehabilitation centres or support convalescent homes.

Safety, Health and Welfare in Northern Ireland

The safety, health and welfare of employees in Northern Ireland have been the subject of legislation which, with certain exceptions, is similar to that in Great Britain and is embodied in separate statutes to meet the special requirements of Northern Ireland.

Pay, Hours and Holidays Earnings

Minimum or standard time-rates for most British manual workers, as determined by agreements or by statutory orders, vary between 3s. 11d. and 4s. 11d. an hour for men and between 2s. 8d. and 3s. 8d. for women. Actual earnings are usually higher. Higher rates are sometimes paid, and piece rates, shift rates and overtime rates raise the level of average earnings. The average weekly earnings of normal workers in manufacturing industry and certain non-manufacturing industries in Great Britain in April 1963 were £16 3s. 1d. a week for men and £8 3s. 9d. a week for women.

Women in industry are for the most part engaged on different tasks from men and are paid less than men on the grounds that these tasks are unskilled or semi-skilled. In the relatively few instances in the field of manual employment, where men and women are employed on precisely the same work and under identical conditions, collective agreements frequently provide for equal remuneration.

The starting salaries in many professional and technical careers are often in the range of £600 to £800 a year, though they may be lower for trainees starting work in their teens and higher for some graduates entering industry and the Civil Service. Such posts offer incremental progression to higher salaries and opportunities for promotion.

Statistics published by the Inland Revenue Department indicate that in 1960-61 some 13·7 per cent of male wage and salary earners earned £1,000 a year or more, 3·7 per cent £1,500 a year or more, 1·8 per cent £2,000 a year or more and 0·7 per cent £3,000 a year or more. For women in the same wage or salary ranges, the corresponding percentages were 2, 0·4, 0·1 and 0·03.

Women have the same right of entry as men to nearly all public offices, administrative posts and professions. They are paid the same salary for doing the same work in medicine, dentistry, physiotherapy, radiography, university teaching, journalism, broadcasting and architecture, and as Ministers of the Crown, members of Parliament, salaried magistrates and

solicitors, pharmacists working in hospitals, and administrative, professional and technical workers in local government. Women in independent professions are not expected to charge lower fees than men. In many other non-manual occupations, however, a woman in Britain doing the same job as a man is still paid less for doing it, and the position is changing very slowly, except in the public service.

Hours of Work

National legislation in the United Kingdom embodies a general prohibition of employment of children under 13 years of age; forbids the employment of older children and women in certain occupations; and limits and defines permissible hours of work for women and young persons in a number of industries or trades. Children aged 13 to 15 may not be employed during school hours or before 6 a.m. or after 8 p.m. on any day, or for more than two hours on school days or on Sundays. This part-time employment is regulated in various ways by statute and by by-laws made by local authorities.

While the hours of work of adult men are not, in general, restricted by statute, normal hours of work for both sexes and those of all ages are usually well within the legal limits on the hours of women and young persons. Agreed weekly hours, in which substantial reductions have been negotiated in many cases within the past three years, are mainly 42 to 44, and may be worked as either a five-day or a five-and-a-half-day week according to the industry and the rule of the particular establishment. Hours actually worked by men are somewhat longer owing to overtime working.

In October 1962 the number of hours actually worked by manual workers averaged 47 for men and 39·4 for women on full-time work.

Holidays with Pay and Bank Holidays

With a few exceptions, manual workers (including shop assistants) in industries covered by agreements or statutory orders are entitled to paid holidays of 12 days or two weeks. Moreover, payment is made for Bank or statutory public holidays, which are as follows: in addition to Good Friday and Christmas Day, there are Bank Holidays in England, Wales, and the Channel Islands on Easter Monday, Whit-Monday, the first Monday in August and the first weekday after Christmas (Boxing Day), and in Scotland on New Year's Day, the first Monday in May, and the first Monday in August. Northern Ireland observes all the English holidays and, in addition, has a holiday on St. Patrick's Day, 17th March, and on 12th July (commemorating the Battle of the Boyne, 1690); Easter Tuesday is also a customary holiday for industry and trade. Many agreements provide that payments should also be made for specially proclaimed holidays.

In some industries there are also agreements on extended holidays related to length of service. In addition, numerous firms have long-service extended holiday schemes which apply to both staff and manual workers.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

The structure of labour relations in Britain is established mainly on a voluntary basis, and rests on the organisation of employers and workers

into employers' associations and trade unions. These organisations¹ discuss and negotiate terms and conditions of employment and other matters affecting the workpeople at their work. In some industries these negotiations are conducted simply by *ad hoc* meetings, which are held when necessary; in others, voluntary joint machinery has been established on a permanent basis. Normally these arrangements for collective bargaining suffice to settle all questions which are raised, but provision is often made for matters not so settled to be referred for settlement to independent arbitration. In certain trades where wages cannot be effectively controlled by voluntary agreement owing to the inadequate organisation of employers or workers, provision has also been made by the State for statutory regulation under the Wages Councils Act, 1959, the Agricultural Wages Act, 1948, and the Agricultural Wages (Scotland) Act, 1949.

The central organ of employers' associations is the British Employers' Confederation, which was set up in 1919 and was at first called the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations. Its membership now comprises some 59 separate autonomous organisations in industries employing about 70 per cent of the persons engaged in private enterprise industries and services in the country.

The confederation deals with matters affecting the interests of organised employers and their relations with their employees and is recognised by the Government as a channel for consultation between Government departments and representatives of private employers as a whole on such matters.

In Britain the national centre of the trade union movement is the Trades Union Congress (TUC). Most trade unions of any size and importance are affiliated to it. Its membership comprises 175 organisations, of which about a dozen are federations of some 150 separate unions; approximately 350 unions in all are affiliated directly or indirectly. These represent over 8 million workpeople. The TUC deals with all general questions which concern trade unions both nationally and internationally and gives assistance on questions relating to particular trades or industries at the request of the trade union concerned.

Voluntary Joint Negotiating Machinery

While in some industries all matters affecting terms and conditions of employment are discussed on an *ad hoc* basis between the employers' organisations and the trade unions concerned, in other industries there are, for this purpose, bodies composed of representatives of both sides of the industry with, in some cases, an independent chairman. There are about 300 of these bodies, most of which are called Joint Industrial Councils.

Arrangements for negotiation and joint consultation also exist at district and factory level in many industries, where matters are discussed either between the appropriate representatives of the two sides on an *ad hoc* basis, or through regular machinery provided by District Joint Industrial Councils or similar bodies and Works Councils.

¹Some employers, including the central Government and the public corporations operating the nationalised industries, negotiate directly with the trade unions representing their different types of employees.

Matters which prove difficult to settle by negotiation are sometimes referred by agreement to independent conciliators or arbitrators, and one way in which the parties can find such people is by invoking the help of the Ministry of Labour. Industrial Relations Officers, whose duties include conciliation of disputes, form part of the staff of the Ministry's industrial relations service. Disputes which cannot be settled through conciliation may, at the request of both parties, be referred to voluntary arbitration, either by a single arbitrator, or an *ad hoc* Board of Arbitration, or by the Industrial Court, a permanent tribunal established under the Industrial Courts Act, 1919. The Minister must refer to the Industrial Court a complaint, not in the meanwhile met, that a particular employer is not observing recognised (agreed or awarded) terms or conditions of employment in his trade or industry. The Minister is also empowered to appoint a Court of Inquiry or Committee of Investigation into a dispute, whether existing or apprehended. These proceedings are primarily means of informing public opinion of the facts of a dispute and are not means of arbitration. Recommendations contained in the reports of such bodies often provide the basis for further negotiations which lead to a settlement.

Northern Ireland

The system of labour relations in Northern Ireland is based on the same principles as that of Great Britain and, in these matters, the Minister of Labour and National Insurance has powers and duties broadly similar to those of the Minister of Labour in Great Britain. About 90 per cent of trade unionists in Northern Ireland are members of trade unions whose headquarters are in Great Britain.

HUMAN RELATIONS

Personnel Management

In recent years there has been a marked increase of interest in 'human relations' in industry, i.e. relations between management and their workers as individuals, as distinct from relations between organisations of employers and organisations of workers. This has led to more widespread attention being given to all aspects of personnel management and to the establishment of more personnel departments.

Joint Consultation

The realisation that the co-operation of workpeople depends largely on their proper understanding of management's aims and plans has focused attention on the means of conveying information to workers. Methods used include posters, wall information sheets, production charts, displays of photographs, the production of news-sheets and house journals, discussions and lectures, film shows and exhibitions. It is increasingly held, however, that, although these media have their use, it is more important to improve communications down the normal chain of responsibility to workshop level

(a matter which depends on personal relations and on the adequacy of supervisor training) and to establish means for joint consultation, such as those provided by a works council.

The Government has assisted these developments by advice on techniques, by the supply of posters, pamphlets, films, and other publicity material, and by encouraging and promoting joint consultation.

GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING SERVICES

The provision of employment services in Great Britain has been one of the principal functions of the Ministry of Labour since its inception. The scope of the services has gradually been extended to include the provision of advice on employment and, in suitable cases, of vocational training. The Employment and Training Act, 1948, provided a permanent legislative basis for these wider services.

Northern Ireland has its own legislation in these matters which embodies the main principles of the corresponding legislation in Great Britain. The responsible department is the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance. The following account of services in Great Britain applies in general to Northern Ireland except where otherwise stated.

The main services are provided through the countrywide network of some 1,000 local offices, which act as employment exchanges. Local employment committees, composed of representatives of employers, workers and other local interests, are attached to certain employment exchanges as advisory bodies. There is an additional service designed to meet the needs of men and women who are qualified for professional, administrative, managerial, senior executive and technical and scientific posts at home and overseas and for those likely to qualify, i.e. ex-regular officers of the armed forces and young men and women suitable for training. This service is operated in Great Britain through the Professional and Executive Register, held at 38 of the larger exchanges.

In view of the increasing number of old people in the population the Ministry of Labour recognises the need to promote the employment of older men and women and has carried out considerable publicity to persuade employers to consider older workers on their merits without regard to their age; employment exchanges have instructions to make special efforts to find employment for older workers.

General Employment Services for Adults

All the offices referred to above accept on their registers both employed and unemployed persons seeking employment. Their primary function is to introduce suitable persons seeking employment to employers requiring employees, thus providing an efficient service to employers and job-seekers and meeting the needs of the national economy.

The employment exchanges holding the Professional and Executive Register are also ready to give information about the professions and allied occupations to young men and women aged 18 years and over who have not already established themselves in a profession or in the business world, and to old people who wish to change their careers.

Vocational Training

A special responsibility of the local employment offices is recruitment under the vocational training scheme. In Britain the main responsibility for vocational training for employment below professional level rests on the industries and trades directly concerned. The main purpose of the Ministry's scheme is to assist certain classes of people in special need of help to fit themselves for suitable employment, but the Ministry is also concerned in helping to overcome shortages of labour in key industries and for this purpose training is available to a much wider range of workers. The majority of trainees under the scheme are disabled but many are able-bodied men and women seeking employment after voluntary service in the regular armed forces, or other unemployed workers having special difficulty in resettlement (including skilled workers whose prospects of employment in their existing trade are poor).

The training is normally provided at Government training centres which are situated near the main industrial areas, but training under the scheme can in some cases be arranged at technical and commercial colleges, private training schools or employers' establishments and, for the more severely disabled, at four residential training centres run by voluntary societies.

Courses vary in length according to the trade; most last for six months. Schemes of training for particular trades have been drawn up in consultation with representatives of the employers and workers concerned, who in some cases also assist in the selection of persons suitable for training. Allowances, at a higher rate than for unemployment benefit, are paid to trainees during training to maintain them and their dependants. About 4,800 people were trained under the scheme in 1962, and about 87 per cent of them were subsequently employed in the trade for which they had been trained.

Youth Employment Service

The Ministry of Labour is also responsible in Great Britain for two specialised employment services: the Youth Employment Service and the Disablement Resettlement Service.

The purpose of the Youth Employment Service is to help young people leaving school, and young workers under 18 years of age, at the start of their working life.

The service is under the general direction of the Central Youth Employment Executive, staffed by officers of the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Education and the Scottish Education Department. This joint executive is appointed by the Minister of Labour, who is responsible to Parliament for the Youth Employment Services as a whole. The Minister has appointed a National Youth Employment Council and separate advisory committees for Scotland and for Wales to advise him.

Locally the service is operated in most areas through Youth Employment Offices established by local education authorities (in Scotland by education authorities) in accordance with the schemes submitted by them to the Minister of Labour and approved by him. In those areas where such schemes are not in operation, the service is operated by the local office of the Ministry of Labour.

The main functions of the service are to collect and disseminate information on careers, provide talks in schools, give vocational guidance, find suitable employment and keep contact with young workers to help them settle down. A further function is to help employers to fill vacancies for young people. Local Youth Employment Committees, made up of teachers, employers, workers and other appropriate interests, assist the service in an advisory capacity.

In Northern Ireland the functions of the youth employment service are similar to those in Great Britain but its organisation is different. A new unified service, for which the Minister of Labour and National Insurance will be responsible, started with the establishment in December 1961 of a statutory board composed of representatives appointed by the education committees of the counties and county boroughs, and persons appointed by the Minister to represent the governors of voluntary grammar schools, teachers, employers, workers, the universities and colleges, youth organisations and the Churches' Industrial Council. There will also be local youth employment committees, as in Great Britain. This service will gradually replace that now operated by the Ministry of Labour and National Insurance with the co-operation of the Vocational Guidance Service of one of the education committees.

Disablement Resettlement Service

The purpose of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Acts, 1944 and 1958, on which all the work of the Ministry of Labour for the disabled is based, is 'to make further and better provision for enabling persons handicapped by disablement to secure employment or work on their own account', and the Disablement Resettlement Service is designed to help the disabled to get and keep suitable work. The service is available to all persons over school-leaving age who are substantially handicapped as a result of injury, disease or congenital deformity in obtaining or keeping employment.

The Ministry of Labour is responsible for the administration of the service. At each of its local offices there is a disablement resettlement officer, working under the direction of the manager and in co-operation with other officers. Besides his contacts with employers this officer is in touch with all the hospitals in his area and visits any patient who wishes to discuss the question of future employment. His work involves close co-operation with doctors, local authorities and voluntary welfare agencies.

The help given by the service falls under five main headings:

- (1) *Vocational guidance* is given at local offices by disablement resettlement officers in consultation, as necessary, with the local disablement advisory committees, hospital resettlement clinics and medical interviewing committees, and also by vocational psychologists in the industrial rehabilitation units (see below).
- (2) *Placing in ordinary employment*: Having regard to a disabled person's qualifications and aptitude and to medical guidance, and concentrating on what the person can do rather than on what he cannot do, the disablement resettlement officer endeavours to find the work most suited to each person, either immediately, or in appropriate cases after a course of

industrial rehabilitation or vocational training. To some extent this is facilitated by the main provision of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944, namely, that all employers of 20 or more workers are required to employ a quota (at present 3 per cent for all industries, except shipping, in respect of the manning of ships) of registered disabled persons. Registration is voluntary. The number registered on 16th April, 1963, was 653,362. At the same date 62,415 registered disabled were unemployed, 56,525 being considered capable of ordinary employment. The remaining 5,890 were so severely disabled as to be classed as unlikely to obtain ordinary employment, though in fact many so classed are found work in open industry by careful selective placement.

- (3) *Industrial Rehabilitation*¹ is provided at 17 units run by the Ministry of Labour. These units offer to men and women an opportunity, when their medical treatment is completed, to adjust themselves gradually to normal working conditions and to obtain vocational guidance based on a skilled assessment of their aptitudes. No charge is made for attendance, and maintenance allowances are paid. Courses are individually planned and average about eight weeks. Recommendations for courses are made in the first instance to the disablement resettlement officer at the employment exchange, who has responsibility for placing in employment after the course.

For the blind, similar industrial rehabilitation facilities are available at two centres conducted by voluntary organisations, with the financial assistance of the Ministry of Labour.

- (4) *Vocational Training Facilities* for the disabled exist at Government training centres, educational institutions and employers' establishments. For the more seriously disabled there are special residential training colleges run by voluntary organisations with the financial assistance and technical help of the Ministry of Labour. There are also arrangements for the training of special categories of the disabled such as the blind, and for providing disabled people (including the blind), who are of the appropriate educational standard, with grants to undertake study or training for the purpose of qualifying for professional or comparable employment.
- (5) *Remploy Ltd.*, a non-profit-making public company with no share capital, was set up in accordance with the provisions of the Disabled Persons (Employment) Act, 1944. Its objects are to provide training and employment facilities for registered disabled people unlikely to obtain work except under special conditions. Its powers include the provision of special factories and workshops, hostel accommodation and facilities for homeworkers. The directors are appointed by the Minister of Labour; funds for capital development and to meet operational costs are provided by loans and grants under the Ministry of Labour Vote. At the end of 1962 *Remploy Ltd.* operated 89 factories and employed 6,394 severely disabled men and women, including some 140 homeworkers.

Facilities for the employment of both blind and severely disabled sighted people are provided by local authorities and by voluntary organisations,

¹For an account of medical rehabilitation of the disabled, see p. 74.

with the financial assistance of the Ministry of Labour. At the end of December 1962, 67 workshops for the blind accommodated 235 blind people in training and 3,692 in employment. In addition, some 1,100 blind people were working at home under homeworkers' schemes. The Ministry also helped to finance the training and employment of 1,195 severely disabled sighted people in 47 workshops provided by local authorities or voluntary undertakings, and 210 such people in workshops for the blind.

REHABILITATION¹ AND WELFARE

IN BRITAIN the expression 'rehabilitation of the sick and injured' is used to define a continuous process which, starting from the onset of sickness and injury, comprises all the measures used (1) to prevent undue loss of physical and mental function during illness; (2) to assist convalescent patients to recover full function and to resume their normal way of life without more delay and (3) to help those for whom permanent disability is unavoidable to regain the maximum possible physical and mental function, to adapt to their residual disability and to live and work in the conditions best suited to their capacity. The term 'welfare', especially when associated with 'health' as a subject of local authority services, indicates activities to help people who are physically or mentally disabled, or handicapped by old age, in their day-to-day lives. The related subject of 'disablement resettlement', the process of helping the disabled to obtain suitable work, has been described (see p. 71) as part of Britain's employment services. The financial assistance available to the sick, injured, or retired, forms part of the social security system (see pp. 10-17). For the provision of special educational treatment for handicapped children and the school health service, which keeps a watch for abnormalities, see pp. 36 and 38.

Administrative Authorities

The Ministry of Health in England and Wales and the Scottish Home and Health Department are concerned to prevent disablement wherever possible, as well as to reduce its severity and to restore the disabled to health and efficiency and to promote the care and comfort of both disabled and old people. Local authorities have a variety of health and welfare functions under the National Health Acts and the National Assistance Acts in which they are helped and advised by the central Government departments; the other health authorities concerned are the hospital authorities and general practitioner services (see pp. 21-22).

In Northern Ireland it is the Ministry of Health and Local Government which is concerned, with the local health and welfare authorities, with the medical and social care of the disabled and of old people.

MEDICAL REHABILITATION

Experience has shown that efficient medical rehabilitation reduces the stay in hospital, the incidence of permanent disability and the period of incapacity for full work. Specialised rehabilitation facilities are provided at the main hospitals and in a few special centres. They have been applied with advantage in the care of the chronic sick, the mentally disabled, the aged and the handicapped

¹For a fuller account, see COI reference pamphlet R.F.P. 4972, *Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain*.

and have enabled many patients to become self-sufficient or to be discharged from hospital and to resume an independent life in their own homes. The work is carried out under the guidance of the appropriate medical specialist by physiotherapists, remedial gymnasts, occupational therapists and social workers, acting as a team. The departments work in close association with the Disablement Resettlement Service of the Ministry of Labour.

Medical rehabilitation is available through the National Health Service (NHS) and includes the provision of artificial limbs, artificial eyes, hearing aids, surgical supports and other appliances that may be needed, either free or for a small fixed charge. Nursing aids for the handicapped at home, ranging from special carriages to feeding cups, can be borrowed through the NHS.

RESIDENTIAL ACCOMMODATION

Local authorities provide residential accommodation, under the National Assistance Act, for the aged and infirm. The newer homes provided by local authorities for aged and other infirm people usually have accommodation for 40 to 60 residents; nearly 1,400 have been opened in Great Britain since the end of the second world war. These smaller homes are gradually replacing the larger institutions which were previously maintained by local authorities. There are also over 2,200 homes for old and disabled people run by voluntary bodies or by private individuals.

WELFARE SERVICES FOR THE BLIND, THE DEAF AND THE DISABLED

All local welfare authorities provide services for the blind, either directly or through voluntary organisations acting as their agents. They also provide, or arrange for, welfare services for the deaf and other handicapped people (including the mentally disordered of all descriptions); voluntary organisations play an important part in this work by supplementing local authority services.

Services for the blind include a home visiting and teaching service; instruction in craft work and in the use of embossed symbols for reading and writing; social clubs, holiday and other recreational facilities; the supply or loan of apparatus; residential social rehabilitation; and an advisory service on the special financial and other benefits available to the blind (including preventive and medical treatment, special education, training for employment and placement in suitable occupations). Voluntary organisations for blind welfare include local blind societies and also national bodies, notably the Royal National Institute for the Blind, the National Library for the Blind, St. Dunstan's (for those blinded in the wars), the Scottish National Federation for the Welfare of the Blind and the Scottish National Institution for the War Blinded.

Many comparable services are available for other severely and permanently disabled people.

Welfare services for the deaf seek to help them to communicate with people who have normal hearing, and to provide clubs and social centres

where deaf people can meet and communicate freely with each other.

(For the mentally disordered living in the community, and their families, see p. 23.)

OLD PEOPLE'S WELFARE

A number of home services for old people are provided by statutory and voluntary bodies to help them to go on living in their own homes for as long as possible. Local health authorities supply, under the National Health Service, home nursing and domestic help (see p. 25); over half the district nurses' time is spent on the aged or the chronic sick, and the same group makes the heaviest demands on the home help service.

Local authorities are enabled by the National Assistance Act to provide meals and recreation for old people, either directly or through the agency of voluntary organisations. They also have power to assist voluntary organisations by contributing to the cost of the services, giving or lending furniture, vehicles or equipment, permitting organisations to use premises belonging to the local authority and making available the services of local authority staff in this connection.

Local Old People's Welfare Committees have been formed and are aided by the National Old People's Welfare Council, an associated group of the National Council of Social Service widely representative of voluntary and statutory bodies having direct contact with old people, or by the Scottish Old People's Welfare Committee, a committee of the Scottish Council of Social Service. A National Corporation for the Care of Old People was established in 1947 by the Nuffield Foundation¹ to stimulate and to give financial support to schemes for the welfare of the aged, to maintain an expert technical advisory service, and to encourage and undertake research and experiment for the welfare of old people. It is now concentrating its main effort on home services.

WELFARE SERVICES IN NORTHERN IRELAND

In Northern Ireland the services provided under the Welfare Services Act (Northern Ireland), 1949 (as amended), are broadly similar in scope to those provided in Great Britain under the National Assistance Act, the only notable exception being the inclusion of domestic help services, which in Great Britain are provided under the National Health Service Act. Local welfare services are provided by the six county and two county borough councils. Welfare authorities have provided 30 homes for the aged and infirm and other homes are under construction. The cost of the services is shared, as in Great Britain, between local taxation and the Exchequer.

¹The Nuffield Foundation was established by the late Lord Nuffield in 1943 for the advancement of health and the prevention and relief of sickness; the advancement of social well-being; the care and comfort of the aged poor; the advancement of education; and such other charitable purposes as might be declared by Lord Nuffield in his lifetime and by the trustees after his death. Prominent among the foundation's many activities are the promotion of medical, scientific and social research and the development of medical services and of technical and commercial education. Its resources consist of a fund of £10 million provided by Lord Nuffield and of gifts and bequests from other sources.

TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

THE CHIEF aims of the penal system of the United Kingdom are to deter the potential law-breaker and to reform the convicted offender. The element of deterrence is intended to lie in the fear of detection, public trial, and possibility of punishment rather than in the severity of the punishment itself. The treatment of offenders today is based increasingly on the recognition that the community has a responsibility not simply to punish or reject the law-breaker but to prevent him from returning to crime.

Administrative Authorities

In England and Wales the Home Secretary is the Minister generally responsible for legislation relating to the treatment of offenders, for collecting statistical and other information about the operation of the penal system, for reviewing the advantages and defects of the various methods of treating offenders, and for bringing information about these methods to the attention of the courts. He is specifically responsible for supervising the approved schools, for promoting the efficiency of the probation service, and for providing, maintaining and managing prisons and borstal institutions.

The Home Secretary is advised in the discharge of his duties as the central authority for all questions relating to the treatment of offenders by the Advisory Council for the Treatment of Offenders, which also acts as the National Working Party Group for the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations, and as the National Committee of the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission.

The general supervision of penal institutions is the responsibility of visiting committees, appointed by the justices, for those prisons to which convicted persons are committed direct from their courts, or of boards of visitors, appointed by the Home Secretary, for the other prisons and institutions.

The penal systems in Scotland and Northern Ireland are based on principles similar to those applied in England and Wales. The Secretary of State for Scotland is advised in the discharge of his duties by the Scottish Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders. In Northern Ireland the system is the responsibility of the Ministry for Home Affairs.

PENALTIES

Except in relation to murder and certain rare offences for which there is a fixed penalty, the court has discretion to select the penalty (within maxima prescribed by law) that it considers most suitable in the light of the circumstances of the offence and the offender. In general, the courts have power to impose either imprisonment or a fine for serious offences (both in certain cases); while most minor offences are punishable by a fine only, with the alternative of imprisonment if the fine is not paid. Moreover, the court has

discretion, instead of sentencing an offender, to discharge him absolutely, to place him on probation or (in England, Wales and Northern Ireland only) to discharge him conditionally (i.e. subject to the condition that he commits no offence during a specified period not exceeding 12 months). Summary courts, when they consider sentencing a first offender to imprisonment, must be satisfied that no other method of dealing with him is appropriate.

In England and Wales no one under the age of 17 may be sentenced to imprisonment in any circumstances. Offenders aged 17 and under 21 may not be sentenced to imprisonment for a term of less than six months¹ (or less than 18 months in the case of persistent offenders) or more than three years. In Scotland the Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act, 1963, provides that no person under 21 years of age may be detained in a prison. Methods of dealing with young offenders are described on p. 82.

Persistent offenders may be sentenced to corrective training or preventive detention. Corrective training which lasts from two to four years (seven years in Northern Ireland), is designed to correct a man's criminal tendency and encourage him to become a responsible citizen. Preventive detention is usually imposed on offenders with a long record of previous offences, whose response to previous institutional training has been unsatisfactory; the sentence runs for not less than five years (three in Northern Ireland) or more than 14 years, as the court decides.

Since 1957 the death penalty in Great Britain for murder has been limited to murders classified as 'capital murder'. These are not necessarily the type of murder regarded as the most wicked, but are those which strike especially at the maintenance of law and order and on which the deterrent effect of capital punishment is believed to be most likely to operate, i.e. murder done in the course of furtherance of theft, murder by shooting or by causing an explosion, murder committed to escape lawful arrest or to effect or assist escape or rescue from legal custody, murder of a police officer (or person assisting him) acting in the execution of his duty, or murder by a prisoner of a prison officer (or person assisting him) acting in the execution of his duty. The penalty for murder not in capital categories is imprisonment for life, except that the death penalty continues to apply where a person who is convicted of murder has previously been convicted of another murder committed in Great Britain on a different occasion. Murderers under the age of 18 at the time that the crime was committed are not sentenced to death or to life imprisonment, but 'to be detained during Her Majesty's pleasure'. If it can be proved that a person accused of murder was suffering from such abnormality of mind as substantially impaired his mental responsibility at the date of conviction, he is entitled to be convicted of the lesser offence of manslaughter.

It is the long-established practice for the Home Secretary or the Secretary of State for Scotland to review every capital case before the law is allowed to take its course, and to consider whether there are grounds for advising the Crown to exercise the prerogative of mercy. Where a reprieve is recommended, the sentence of death is commuted to one of imprisonment for life. A person

¹There is provision in the Criminal Justice Act, 1961, for the eventual abolition of the imprisonment of young offenders for terms of six months or less. This will mean that only in the most serious cases will they be eligible for imprisonment and then only if the court decides that there is no other appropriate method of dealing with them.

subject to a sentence of life imprisonment is liable to be detained for the rest of his life, but the Home Secretary may, if he thinks fit, release him on licence at any time. In recent years, the period served, in an average case, by prisoners whose death sentences have been commuted has been about nine years, but the period varies according to the circumstances of the particular case and the question of whether the prisoner's release would be likely to involve risk to the public.

The Homicide Act, 1957, is not applicable to Northern Ireland, where sentence of death is passed in all cases of murder. The exercise of the prerogative of mercy in such cases is considered by the Northern Ireland Cabinet, which tenders advice to the Governor in his capacity as representative of the Crown.

PRISONS

The rising trend in the total number of people found guilty of indictable offences has led to severe overcrowding in prisons and has strained the resources of other agencies, such as borstals, approved schools and the probation service. Measures to deal with the problems include plans for a substantial increase in the number of prisons and the other institutions mentioned above, and the reconstruction or replacement of a number of old prisons.

Prisons in England and Wales are of the following types: local prisons of the ordinary type, which receive all classes of prisoners direct from the courts; local prisons of a special type, which may be open or walled, for short-sentence prisoners, chiefly first offenders; young prisoners' centres for the reception of youths under 21 years of age with sentences of three months or over, as far as accommodation permits; regional training prisons (some of which are open) for first offenders and trainable prisoners of other categories, including those sentenced to corrective training; and central prisons for habitual law-breakers and long-term first offenders—one for the latter class is an open prison.

The Scottish system of classification of prisoners is broadly the same as that of England and Wales; but each prison in Scotland, except the open prison, accommodates more than one classification group. In Northern Ireland, with its smaller population, the necessity for several kinds of prison to separate the various classes of prisoners does not arise to the same extent.

Classification of Prisoners

Every person committed to prison is received in the local prison serving the court from which he is committed. Subsequently, he may either serve his whole sentence at the local prison or be sent to another institution, depending on his age, the length and nature of his sentence, and his personal history and character.

The object of classification is first to ensure the separation of the sexes, of young prisoners from adults, of untried prisoners from convicted prisoners

and of civil prisoners from criminal prisoners; secondly, to prevent contamination, among convicted prisoners, of the better by the worse; and thirdly, to provide training appropriate to their needs for those among convicted prisoners who seem likely to benefit therefrom.

Training

In prison training, efforts are being made to provide (1) work of a kind likely to help fit prisoners to earn their living after release, with technical training and skilled trades for certain persons, (2) suitable educational facilities, and (3) opportunities for the development of a sense of personal responsibility, including (for suitable prisoners) training in open conditions. A system of vocational training courses designed to give partial training in skilled trades and to enable suitable trainees to take the examinations of recognised examining bodies, is in operation in borstals and a number of prisons.

Employment

Except in local prisons in England and Wales, where the hours are shorter, most prisoners spend about 40 hours a week in the prison workshops or in other employment such as building, farm work, domestic work and gardening in the prison precincts. A few prisoners are employed outside the prisons on various projects of public value, such as agriculture, land drainage, road works and forestry.

In England, Wales, and Scotland, small payments are made to inmates for the work they do, and good work is rewarded by payments above the minimum; in Northern Ireland there is a progressive system of earnings, which is not related to output nor to work done.

Education

Educational schemes are provided in prisons in England, Wales, and Scotland by the local education authorities with the advice of the Government departments responsible for education in their respective countries, and in Northern Ireland by the Ministry of Home Affairs. Evening classes and a wide range of correspondence courses are available for those who have a serious desire to improve their education and qualifications.

Educational schemes are supplemented by periodical lectures, film displays, concerts, and dramatic performances. Prisoners may also use the prison library, which in most cases is now stocked by the county, city or borough library committee.

Medical Services

Medical attention is provided by full-time and part-time medical officers whose duties include not only the care of the physical and mental health of prison inmates, but also the oversight of those services which affect health in prisons.

A few prisons and borstals have their own psychiatric clinics (with qualified medical staff, visiting psychotherapists and psychiatric social workers) to which inmates may be transferred where necessary. In England and Wales there is one psychiatric prison, with accommodation for some 350 people, and a prison psychological service, whose officers are employed to assist governors and medical officers in their work of examining and classifying prisoners, and to advise on methods of treatment. The hospital facilities of the National Health Service are also available for the treatment of prisoners in appropriate cases. Arrangements may be made for prisoners serving short-term sentences to receive treatment after release.

Religion and Welfare

A chaplain of the Church of England (in Scotland, of the Church of Scotland and in Northern Ireland, of the Church of Ireland and Presbyterian Church) and a Roman Catholic priest are appointed to every prison. Ministers of the Methodist Church and of other denominations are either appointed or specially called in as required. Regular services are held, and chaplains and other ministers may visit prisoners in their cells.

Welfare is the general concern of the prison staff, particularly of the chaplains and assistant governors, but all prisons have resident or visiting welfare officers.

Prisoners may be visited by their relatives and friends at specified intervals and by prison visitors specially appointed for the purpose. The voluntary work of prison visitors is co-ordinated and guided by the National Association of Prison Visitors.

Privileges and Discipline

On reception under sentence, all prisoners, except those sentenced to imprisonment for life, are credited with remission of one-third of their sentence (one-fourth in Northern Ireland in respect of sentences of less than two years), provided that this does not reduce their sentence below 31 days (in Scotland, 30 days). A life prisoner may be released on licence by the Home Secretary (see p. 79). All prisoners become entitled to certain personal privileges at successive stages in their sentence.

For breaches of discipline in prison, the prison governor, the visiting committee or the board of visitors have power to order forfeiture of remission (or postponement of the date of release) and forfeiture of privileges.

Discharge and After-Care

All prisons have welfare officers, either resident or visiting. These officers are available to help in any personal problems that a prisoner may have; to take such steps as may be practicable to alleviate any anxieties he may express about the circumstances of his dependants; and to encourage and assist him to make suitable plans for his future. Prison welfare officers work closely with those agencies in the community whose aid the prisoner and his family may need either during his sentence or after his release.

In England and Wales pre-release courses, at which experts hold open forum with prisoners nearing their release on the domestic, social and industrial problems with which they are likely to be faced, are conducted at all prisons. Specially selected men amongst those sentenced to preventive detention, long-term imprisonment and, in Scotland, corrective training are allowed to work, as free men, in ordinary civilian jobs outside prison during the months immediately preceding their discharge; hostels for this purpose have been established at several prisons. Home leave, allowing five clear days at home, is extensively granted to many categories of prisoners with sentences of two years or over towards the end of their sentences to enable them to make family adjustments and contacts with potential employers.

On discharge from local or regional prisons, certain classes of prisoners serving sentences of less than four years (three years in the case of most women) are assisted by local discharged prisoners' aid societies (voluntary bodies supported partly by private and partly by public funds) or by the National Association of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies (a central co-ordinating body, maintained by grants from public funds for its administrative expenses). The National Association is also responsible for welfare and after-care arrangements at regional training prisons and special local prisons.

Statutory supervision in England and Wales applies to those released from preventive detention and corrective training; to young prisoners, and young offenders discharged from borstals. The sanctions for failure to observe the conditions of supervision are recall to prison or borstal. Statutory supervision is the responsibility of the Central After-Care Association, a voluntary body financed from public funds and governed by a council appointed by the Home Secretary, which includes in its membership representatives of the Ministry of Labour, of the National Assistance Board and of the probation service. The association also undertakes voluntary after-care of certain persons released after serving long terms of imprisonment. The After-Care Council, appointed by the Secretary of State for Scotland, carries out similar duties in Scotland.

The Central After-Care Association works through local associates, usually probation officers, and the National Association also works through the after-care officers of local aid societies. The After-Care Council in Scotland uses the services of voluntary guardians. The officers of the local organisations make all arrangements for the reception of the prisoner after his discharge, and will advise, assist and befriend him for as long as is necessary, or as required by statute.

In Northern Ireland the after-care of all prisoners is carried out by the discharged prisoners' aid societies with the help of probation officers.

YOUNG OFFENDERS

Under the English and Scottish legal systems, a child under the age of ten cannot be charged with an offence. A child between 10 and 14 years old, who is charged with an offence other than homicide, must be dealt with in a juvenile court unless charged jointly with an adult.

In England and Wales a young person (i.e. one between 14 and 17 years of age) charged with an indictable offence may be dealt with summarily (as is usually the case) or committed for trial by jury. In certain cases they may claim to be tried by jury, though this right is rarely exercised. In Scotland all children and young persons up to the age of 17 years who are charged with offences must be dealt with in juvenile courts, unless they have been charged in conjunction with adult offenders.

In Northern Ireland a child under the age of 8 cannot be found guilty of an offence. A child or young person between the ages of 8 and 17 will normally be dealt with by a juvenile court unless charged jointly with an adult or committed for trial by jury in the case of an indictable offence. Such committal may take place at the request of the accused's parents or at the discretion of the juvenile court.

Methods of treatment available in law for dealing with children and young persons found guilty of committing an offence include: absolute discharge; conditional discharge (in England and Wales only); fines imposed upon the offender or, in certain circumstances, upon his parents; probation; committal to the care of a fit person (normally the appropriate local authority) until the age of 18; or committal to an approved school. Offenders aged not less than 10 and under 21 may be ordered to attend an attendance centre; aged not less than 14 and under 21, they may be detained in a detention centre; aged not less than 15 and under 21, they may be sent for a period of borstal training. In Scotland offenders of 17 and under 21 found unsuitable for detention centre or borstal training may be detained in a young offenders' institution.

Remand

In England, Wales and Scotland remand homes are provided by local authorities for the custody of boys and girls under the age of 17 before their appearance in court, or between court appearances (while inquiries are made as to the best method of treatment for them), while they are awaiting vacancies in approved schools, or for a short period (up to a month) of punitive detention. In Northern Ireland the responsibility for providing or arranging for the provision of remand homes rests with the Ministry of Home Affairs.

In addition to remand homes, remand centres are being established in England and Wales (and are planned for Scotland), to which a court may send young persons between the ages of 17 and 21 who would otherwise be remanded to prison, and those under 17 years old who are unsuitable for remand homes.

The system of remand offers valuable opportunities for observation, the results of which are included in reports for the guidance of those responsible for the future of young offenders.

Approved Schools

Approved schools are residential schools for boys and girls under the age of 17 who, the courts consider, need not only removal from home but also a fairly long period of training. These boys and girls may be sent to approved schools because they have committed an offence or are in need of care or

protection or on certain other grounds not involving the commission of an offence. The schools may be provided by local authorities, by voluntary organisations concerned with the welfare of children and young people on a national scale, or by local committees formed by people interested in such work. In England and Wales the schools must be approved by the Home Secretary; in Scotland, by the Secretary of State for Scotland; and in Northern Ireland, where they are known as training schools, by the Ministry of Home Affairs. The schools are for boys only or for girls only.

The main ingredients of approved school training are education in the formal sense, religious education and guidance, craft training (for the older groups), attention to health and to the use of recreation and leisure, social training and personal casework. Its primary object is the readjustment of the boys and girls for their return to the community; contact is maintained with their homes while they are in approved schools and after they have left help and supervision are given.

The period during which a child or young person may be detained in an approved school or training school is three years, except for boys and girls under the age of 12 years and 4 months at the time of committal, who may be kept until the age of 15 years and 4 months, and those over the age of 16 on committal, who can be detained only up to the age of 19, or 19½ if they have been found guilty of absconding or of serious misconduct in an approved school.

To help in dealing with absconders and with boys who are intractable and unruly, the provision of a closed school or schools or of a closed unit in existing schools has been under discussion; the provision of severe detention rooms has been included in building projects for the future of some schools. Many of the girls who persistently abscond have been committed to an approved school as being in need of care or protection, and often run away to resume a life of prostitution¹ or near-prostitution in the larger towns or cities. For some of these specially difficult girls the best prospect of successful training may be in individual treatment in a larger school organised on the group system and in psychiatric assistance and work on the home background by a social worker. Borstal training may sometimes be in a girl's best interests.

In England and Wales young people over the age of 15 who present a threat to the discipline of a school may be temporarily transferred on a justice's warrant to another establishment. Those who are thought to be more suitable for borstal training may, with the consent of the Home Secretary, be brought before a magistrates' court, which has power to order removal to borstal. Managers of all approved schools are under an obligation to review the progress of each boy or girl in their charge with a view to granting a release as soon as they are fit for it; release within the first six months of the detention period requires the consent of the Home Secretary. Statutory responsibility for after-care of boys and girls released from approved schools rests on the school managers who are assisted in this work by welfare officers and the probation and child-care services.

¹It is an offence against the law to solicit in public places, to act as a procurer, to live on the immoral earnings of another, to keep a brothel or run any other place, for example a café or bar, in a manner designed to facilitate prostitution. There are no licensed houses (*maisons de tolérance*) nor is there any police regulation or health control of prostitutes as such.

Attendance Centres

A number of attendance centres have been established in England and Wales to deal with boys between the ages of 10 and 17 found guilty of offences for which an adult can be sentenced to imprisonment. This form of treatment is designed to teach young offenders a respect for the law and to give them some instruction in the proper use of leisure. Boys ordered to attend must do so during their spare time on Saturday mornings or afternoons; they may be required to attend for up to three hours on any one occasion and for a total of not less than 12 hours (with certain exceptions) and not more than 24 hours. The activities include a period of instruction in handicrafts, or a lecture (for example, on first aid) and a period of physical training or disciplinary tasks under supervision. Efforts are made at the centres to induce the boys to join a youth club or other suitable organisation.

There is also a centre for youths aged 17 to 21 in Manchester. This operates on similar lines to those adopted at the juvenile centres, but the activities have been adapted to meet the needs of the older age group.

Detention Centres

Detention centres provide a means of treating young offenders for whom a long period of residential training in an approved school or borstal does not seem necessary but who cannot be taught respect for the law by such measures as fines or probation. In England and Wales junior centres are available for boys between the ages of 14 and 17 years, and senior centres for boys between the ages of 17 and 21. One centre is also available for girls in both age groups. In Scotland there is a detention centre for youths. Detention in England and Wales may be for not less than three and not more than six months; if consecutive sentences are passed, the total term may not exceed nine months at any one time. Remission of up to one-sixth of the sentence may be earned for good conduct. In Scotland the fixed period for all detention centre sentences is three months.

As the intention is primarily deterrent, the life of a centre is strict and vigorous, demanding a brisk tempo and the highest possible standard of discipline and behaviour in every aspect of training. The routine provides a normal working week of 44 hours, including one hour daily devoted to physical training, and experience has shown that much positive training can be given within the limits of this framework. Boys of compulsory school age receive full-time education, and classes of further education are provided for others in the evenings. The Criminal Justice Act, 1961, provides for statutory after-care for up to 12 months after discharge from a detention centre.

Borstal Institutions

The borstal training system consists of different borstals for different types of young offender, classified according to such criteria as age, intelligence and criminal sophistication. There are also a few borstals for special purposes, such as allocation or recall. In England and Wales the period of the sentence ranges from six months to two years and is followed by supervision for two years from the date of release. In Scotland, where there is no minimum

period of detention, the maximum is two years and the supervision period is for one year from the date of release from the institution. Sentences in Northern Ireland are for periods not exceeding three years including the period under supervision; normally release does not take place until at least nine months of the sentence has expired. The system is essentially remedial and educational, based on personal training by a carefully selected staff. Emphasis is placed on vocational training in skilled trades; there is much freedom of movement, and many borstals are conducted in open conditions. An initial period of classification ensures that each young offender is sent to the institution best suited to his or her requirements.

PROBATION

The probation service is designed to secure the rehabilitation of an offender while he remains at work or at school under the supervision of a probation officer, whose duty it is to advise, assist and befriend him. A cardinal feature of the service is that it relies on the co-operation of the offender. Before making a probation order, the court must explain its effects and make sure that the probationer understands that if he fails to comply with the requirements of the order he will be liable to be dealt with for the original offence. A probation order cannot be made without the consent of the person concerned unless (in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland only) he is under 14 years of age. The order usually requires the probationer to keep in regular touch with the probation officer, to be of good behaviour and to lead an industrious life. It may also require him to live in a specified place, or to submit to treatment for his mental condition. A probation order is made for not less than one year and not more than three years.

Every magistrates' court and superior criminal court must have available the services of probation officers of both sexes.

LEGAL AID AND ADVICE

SCHEMES for free legal assistance to people of slender means and resources have existed for centuries in some courts—to a limited extent in England and Wales, and to a somewhat greater extent in Scotland. The Legal Aid and Advice Act, 1949, and the corresponding Legal Aid and Solicitors (Scotland) Act, 1949, were introduced to improve existing arrangements in civil proceedings so that no one would be financially unable to prosecute a just and reasonable claim or to defend a legal right, and also to make the facilities already available in criminal proceedings more easily accessible to those who needed them.

The scheme established by the Act of 1949 for providing legal aid in civil matters has been gradually brought into operation, until today legal aid is available for nearly all types of civil proceedings in nearly all courts of law. It is also available for getting oral legal advice and for certain matters where the assistance of a lawyer is needed but which do not (or do not yet) involve litigation.

Legal Aid in Civil Cases

Free legal aid in civil cases is available to people with very small incomes and capital, and contributory legal aid to those in higher income and capital groups. The majority of people in England and Wales are financially eligible for legal aid.

The legal aid scheme in England and Wales is run by the Law Society under the general guidance of the Lord Chancellor. It is operated by 12 area committees and a network of local committees composed of barristers and solicitors (who may be paid a fee), with a salaried staff. The cost is met from the Legal Aid Fund, drawn from three sources: contributions from assisted persons; costs recovered from opposite parties in litigation; and a grant from the Exchequer.

Applicants for free legal aid must show that they have reasonable ground for asserting or disputing a claim. A successful applicant is allowed to select from a panel a solicitor who, if necessary, instructs a barrister, and the case is then conducted in the ordinary way. Certain types of action, including libel and slander, are excluded from the scheme.

In Scotland the legal aid scheme is administered by the Law Society of Scotland through a supervisory central committee, the Supreme Court committee, and 16 local committees. An applicant is required to show 'probable cause' and produce in support of his application a statement corroborated according to the requirements of Scottish law. Assistance is available in connection with appeals to the House of Lords from the Court of Session, in civil proceedings before the Court of Session and the sheriff courts and in matters not involving litigation.

Legal Aid in Criminal Courts

Free legal aid is available in the criminal courts in England and Wales under the Poor Prisoners' Defence Act, 1930, which provides for the granting of either a legal aid certificate which entitles the recipient to the services of a solicitor (or, in the case of a preliminary inquiry into a charge of murder, of a solicitor and counsel) in defending a charge heard summarily or at committal proceedings in indictable cases, or a defence certificate which provides both solicitor and counsel in a trial on indictment. The granting of these certificates is in the discretion of the justices or judge before whom the applicant is to be tried, except in the case of a person committed for trial on a charge of murder, when a defence certificate must be granted if the defendant has insufficient means.

Free legal aid for an appeal to quarter sessions is provided for in the Summary Jurisdiction (Appeals) Act, 1933, which lays down that, in proper cases, an appeal aid certificate may be granted by a magistrates' court or quarter sessions. The granting of legal aid in appeals to the Court of Criminal Appeal rests with a judge of that court who may also grant legal aid for the purposes of a further appeal to the House of Lords.

The cost of legal aid in magistrates' courts is paid out of the Legal Aid Fund. In the higher courts payments are made in the first instance out of local authority funds and the cost is reimbursed by the central Government.

Pending the full implementation of the Legal Aid and Solicitors (Scotland) Act, legal aid in criminal cases in Scotland has been limited to voluntary arrangements, operated by the legal profession, for the representation of poor persons.

Legal Advice

Oral advice on legal matters is available, both in England and Wales and in Scotland, free of charge to people in receipt of national assistance and at a very reasonable cost, i.e. at 2s. 6d. for an interview of up to 30 minutes, to those of limited means. Advice is given by practising solicitors paid out of the legal aid funds of the two countries. The scheme is administered by the two Law Societies, which also run voluntary schemes (for a fee of £1) for those who do not qualify for statutory assistance.

Legal Aid in Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland free legal aid in criminal cases is afforded to poor persons under the Criminal Justice (Northern Ireland) Act, 1945, the cost being met from public funds.

Legislation providing for a comprehensive system of legal assistance (covering legal advice, preliminary legal aid and legal aid by way of representation by solicitor and counsel in all courts and tribunals) to persons within the income and capital ranges specified in the Legal Aid Act, 1960, was recommended in a majority report of a committee appointed by the Northern Ireland Minister of Home Affairs, and a Bill to introduce Legal Aid and A vice Scheme was introduced in the Northern Ireland Parliament in 1963.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS

VOLUNTARY organisations, especially the Churches, were the pioneers of nearly all the social services. They provided schools, hospitals, clinics, dispensaries, and social and recreational clubs before these were provided by the State. They made themselves responsible for the welfare of the very young and the very old, the homeless and the handicapped, before it was generally accepted that the whole community had a responsibility towards these people. Where the services and the facilities they provided were adequate, they have been encouraged to continue. The State now supplements these voluntary services and provides financial assistance, sees that essential services are brought within the reach of every citizen, and ensures that the necessary standards are maintained.

Many voluntary social services surround and supplement the State services. The two types are complementary, not competitive, and they merge into each other. State services often work through voluntary agencies specially adapted to serve individual or special needs. The officers of central and local government, in carrying out their duties, co-operate with the workers of many voluntary social service societies, while the institutional provision made by the State and by local authorities for the care of the chronic sick and the aged is supplemented by voluntary homes of various types for the care of the sick and elderly, most of whom receive State pensions or benefits.

The Charity Commission, a Government department, gives free advice to trustees of charities, making schemes to modify their trusts and purposes when necessary; it maintains a Central Register of Charities in which information about all the charities in England and Wales is being gathered together; and it works to promote co-operation between charities and State services.

Nearly all voluntary organisations conduct their own separate money-raising activities (there is nothing analogous to the American 'community chest' system). Many receive grants from central or local government and some are helped in special projects by various trusts, for example, the Nuffield Trust and the King George VI Foundation.

The number of voluntary charitable societies and institutions in Britain runs into thousands; they range from national organisations to small individual local groups. Most organisations, however, are members of larger associations or are represented on local or national co-ordinating councils or committees. Some are chiefly concerned with giving personal service, others are mainly interested in the formation of public opinion and exchange of information.

Bodies working on a national scale whose work is specifically religious in inspiration include the Salvation Army, the Church Army, Toc H, the Committee on Social Service of the Church of Scotland, the Church of England Children's Society, the Church of England Council for Social Work, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Society of Friends, the Crusade of Rescue, the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, the Catholic Marriage Advisory Council and the Jewish Board of Guardians.

A central link between different voluntary organisations and official bodies concerned with social welfare is provided by the National Council of Social Service, which brings together most of the principal voluntary agencies for consultation and joint action, either as a whole or in groups of organisations concerned with particular aspects, such as youth work and old people's welfare, in England and Wales; by the Scottish Council of Social Service and the Northern Ireland Council of Social Service. It was the National Council of Social Service which set up the Citizens' Advice Bureaux, of which there are now about 430 in the United Kingdom. The role of the bureaux is to give explanation and advice to the citizen who is in doubt about his rights or who does not know about the State or voluntary service which could help him.

Community Services

A valuable community service is still performed by the 50 or so 'residential settlements' in poorer districts (a movement started in the 1880s). These settlements, still largely voluntarily maintained, are focal points of local social, educational and youth activities. Of more recent origin are the community associations, usually to be found on new housing estates and in the new towns. These associations manage, or are planning to build, community centres to serve as neighbourhood meeting places. Similar work in rural areas is done by the rural community councils. Women's Co-operative Guilds and the Townwomen's Guilds (in urban areas) and Women's Institutes (in rural areas) have a large membership and many educational and social activities.

Voluntary organisations play a major role in youth work (see p. 49).

The preservation of the countryside and of interesting buildings has been a constant subject of voluntary effort and popular propaganda by 'amenity societies' concerned with their surroundings (see p. 57).

Family Welfare Services

The important share taken by voluntary bodies in the provision of help to families has been mentioned in the section of this pamphlet describing family casework, marriage guidance, aid to the unmarried mother and to children deprived of a normal home life (see pp. 29-31).

Services for the Sick or Handicapped

Many convalescent homes and homes for the infirm and for people with specific handicaps are, or were originally, provided by voluntary effort. In many areas invalid children and others needing care in their own homes are visited and helped by voluntary organisations.

Voluntary service to the sick and disabled in general is given by the British Red Cross, the St. John Ambulance Brigade and the St. Andrew's Ambulance Association, but a number of societies exist to help sufferers from particular disabilities, such as the Royal National Institute for the Blind, the Royal National Institute for the Deaf, the National Association for Mental Health, and the constituent members of the Central Council for the Disabled.

A great deal of help is given to hospitals by voluntary bodies and individual voluntary helpers. The majority of the hospitals in England and Wales have their own Leagues of Friends or similar bodies of voluntary workers who organise and undertake a variety of services for their hospitals. Many hospitals also have help from the British Red Cross Society, the Order of St. John, or a similar organisation. The operation of canteens for out-patients, and trolley-shops and book and picture library services for in-patients, visiting in the wards, receiving new patients, and mending linen are among the tasks commonly undertaken.

The care and education of children who are crippled, blind, deaf or otherwise handicapped is undertaken by local authorities through the agency of special schools and boarding homes, many of which were started, as new ones still are, by voluntary bodies. Voluntary agencies also do much for handicapped children in their own homes.

Many voluntary associations, such as the British Legion and other ex-Service organisations, give financial aid and personal service to disabled ex-Service men and women and their families. These bodies work in co-operation with the Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance.

Mentally handicapped persons are the responsibility of public authorities; but the voluntary bodies concerned with mental health have formed the National Association for Mental Health, which carries out a wide programme of advisory, educational and therapeutic work.

A wide range of voluntary personal service is given by the Women's Voluntary Service, which 'lends a hand' in every kind of practical difficulty, brings 'meals on wheels' to housebound invalids and old people, minds children, and visits the sick in hospital, as well as doing relief work in emergencies.

The Future of Voluntary Services

As the scope and standard of State social services widen and improve providing most of the material relief that is called for and the basic welfare services, the energy formerly devoted to voluntary social services of these kinds is freed to concentrate on other social activities, and especially to develop new forms of service. In a democratic society there is always a call for voluntary social service; many important new voluntary services have come into being in recent years and new openings for voluntary effort are continually being explored.

STAFFING THE SOCIAL SERVICES

THERE ARE two broad classes of people engaged full-time in the social services. On the one hand there are the specialists technically qualified for a particular profession or occupation, for example, teachers, doctors or qualified social workers. On the other there are those employed by public authorities or voluntary bodies to administer the social services; these include people with specialised functions such as disablement resettlement officers or youth employment officers, who receive some in-service training for this work, as well as organisers and office workers. In addition, there are the numbers of voluntary workers who work unpaid in the social services in their own spare time, in particular by giving personal service, for example, as youth leaders, visitors to old people, marriage guidance counsellors or members of Women's Voluntary Service.

TEACHERS

School teachers are appointed by local education authorities or school governing bodies or managers.

There are 165 teacher-training colleges in England and Wales (excluding the university departments of education); many colleges are being extended and several new ones are to be built. The courses which last three years are generally residential but since 1960 eight colleges have been opened for 'day' students only, with the object of attracting students, often older than average, whose domestic responsibilities would prevent their living in college. There are 24 university departments of education providing a one-year course for graduates. In Scotland (where, too, facilities are being extended) all teacher-training is provided in four general colleges of education, two denominational colleges and a college for training women teachers of physical education. Courses are normally of one year's duration for graduates or the equivalent, and of three years for non-graduates. Northern Ireland has three general teachers' training colleges, one university training department and three specialist colleges—one for training teachers of physical education, one for teachers of domestic science and one for teachers of art. The basic course in the general training colleges lasts three years. The education departments, the universities, local education authorities and other bodies provide a variety of short courses for practising teachers.

Staff of teacher-training and technical colleges are appointed by the local education authorities, except in the case of voluntary training colleges, where they are appointed by the governing bodies.

There is no formal pattern of training for teaching at other institutions of higher education, namely universities and colleges of advanced technology, where teaching is to a large extent combined with research. Appointments are the responsibility of the governing bodies of the individual institutions.

THE MEDICAL, DENTAL AND ALLIED PROFESSIONS

Only persons whose names are on the medical register can practise as doctors under the National Health Service. Apart from registered medical practitioners, only persons whose names are on the dentists' register can practise the full range of dentistry in Britain; dental auxiliaries who have undergone a two-year training course may do some simple work under supervision. The minimum qualification for registration as a doctor requires five to seven years' training in medical school and hospital, with an additional year's experience as a resident assistant doctor in a hospital; for a dentist, four or more years at a dental school are required. The governing body of the medical profession is the General Medical Council, first set up in 1858; that of the dentists is the General Dental Council, which succeeded the Dental Board in 1956. The British Medical Association is the doctors' professional association; that of the dentists is the British Dental Association.

The minimum period of hospital training required to qualify for registration as a general trained nurse is three years. Training is available also in sick children's, mental, and mental subnormality nursing. The course for an enrolled nurse is a two-year one. The governing body of the nursing profession is the General Nursing Council, set up in 1919. Midwives must have the certificate of the Central Midwives Board. Most pupil midwives are already State-registered general nurses or sick children's nurses; for them the two-year midwifery training period is reduced to one year and, for State-enrolled nurses, to 18 months. The Royal College of Nursing and the Royal College of Midwives are the professional bodies for nurses and midwives. Health visitors are State-registered general or sick children's nurses who have undergone at least the first part of the midwifery course or obstetric nursing before taking a year's course in health visiting. This course is promoted by the Council for the Training of Health Visitors.

Only registered pharmaceutical chemists may practise as pharmacists or describe themselves as such, and qualifications requiring four to five years' academic study and practical training are necessary for registration. The Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain is the governing body of the profession. Under the Opticians' Act, 1958, a General Optical Council regulates the profession of ophthalmic optician and only registered ophthalmic opticians (or registered medical practitioners) may test sight. Training takes three years followed by a year under supervision.

For the professions of chiropodist, dietitian, medical laboratory technician, occupational therapist, physiotherapist, radiographer, remedial gymnast and speech therapist a good general education is required, followed by professional training, mostly of two or three years. Only people with approved qualifications may be employed in these professions in the National Health Service; with the exception of speech therapists, these professions have their own professional boards, supervised by the Council for Professions Supplementary to Medicine. The length and nature of the training varies according to the profession and may be as long as three years.

SOCIAL WORKERS

While the voluntary worker giving full-time or part-time service has done pioneer work in many of Britain's social services and continues to play an

essential part, social services of all kinds increasingly depend for their operation chiefly on the professional social worker, that is, the full-time salaried worker trained in the principles and technique of social work. Training for many forms of social work consists of a basic university degree, diploma or certificate course in social science followed by a university course in applied social studies or specialised training for a particular service, for example, family casework, child care, probation or almoning (medical social work). This training is sometimes organised by the profession concerned. Under the Health Visiting and Social Work (Training) Act, 1962, a Council for Training in Social Work has been set up to promote the training, in the first instance, of workers in the local authority health and welfare services and similar services run by voluntary organisations. Full-time general courses lasting two years, now being provided by ten colleges of further education, will lead to the Certificate in Social Work of this council. It is expected that more courses will be arranged in future years. Almoners must obtain the certificate of the Institute of Almoners, or have taken a recognised university course to qualify them for membership of the institute. Psychiatric social workers are required to have a certificate showing they have attended the mental health course provided at certain universities.

Voluntary organisations were the pioneers in the employment and training of social workers, but Government departments and local authorities now employ a considerable number of trained social workers, for example, in child care, youth work, almoning, psychiatric social work, and the probation service.

THE CIVIL SERVICE¹

The permanent Home Civil Service of the British Government is recruited by the Civil Service Commission on a uniform pattern. The main grades, as distinct from certain grades particular to individual departments, are:

- (1) *The Administrative Class*, which is responsible for advising Ministers on policy, for dealing with any difficulties which may arise in carrying out existing policy, and for forecasting the probable effects of new measures and regulations. This relatively small class, which numbers about 2,500, is recruited largely from other grades which can be promoted into it.
- (2) *The Executive Class* (numbering some 73,000), which is responsible for the day-to-day conduct of Government business, including the higher work of supply and accounts, within the framework of established policy. From it come the managers of local offices. Members of this class may, after entry, train for specialist work such as that of auditor, actuary or statistician.
- (3) *The Specialist Classes*, which number about 110,000, in a variety of different categories for carrying out the wide range of specialised activities which are now undertaken by the Government. The categories include architects, doctors,² engineers, lawyers, surveyors and scientists in all branches of science.

¹For further information, see COI reference paper R. 4985, *The British Civil Service*.

²i.e. employed in the Health Departments and others to consider medical aspects of policy, not in the treatment of patients.

(4) *The Clerical Class* (the largest of the main classes, comprising about 126,000 officers), which undertakes all the usual clerical work involved in running departmental business, for example, the preparation of accounts and keeping of records, the handling of particular claims in accordance with known rules, and the summarising and annotation of documents for the assistance of senior officers.

(5) *The Ancillary Clerical Classes* (with some 106,000 members) which include clerical assistants, shorthand typists and typists, duplicator operators and a rapidly increasing number of machine-operating grades.

(6) *Messengerial and Minor Classes* (with some 34,000 members) which, in addition to messengers, include paper keepers, office cleaners and similar workers.

Departmental classes, where employment is peculiar to one department, include the Factory Inspectorate of the Ministry of Labour, the Inspectorates of the Education Departments and Home Departments, the Inspectorate of the Agriculture Departments, and the Mines and Quarries Inspectorate of the Ministry of Power.

The Government of Northern Ireland has its own Civil Service which deals with matters transferred to its jurisdiction. Subject to regional differences, this is modelled on its counterpart in Great Britain.

Full-time prison staff of all ranks, except chaplains, are permanent civil servants. They include such people as medical officers, psychiatrists and nursing sisters, as well as discipline staff and, in Scotland and Northern Ireland, office workers. In England and Wales office work in prisons is performed by staff from the clerical and executive classes of the Home Civil Service.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT SERVICE¹

Over one million people, including teachers (see p. 92), transport staff and building workers, are employed in local government service in Britain. Generally speaking, councils are free to make such appointments as they deem necessary for carrying out their work, although certain posts (for example, the clerk, the treasurer, and the medical officer of health) are compulsory in almost all councils. Choice of personnel is also left to a great extent to the individual council; in theory, the appointment of certain chief officers is subject to some central control but, in practice, the nominee of the council is nearly always accepted.

As a general rule, officers are of three kinds: heads of departments or chief officers, whose duties are mainly of an administrative and managerial kind; subordinate officers employed in a professional, clerical or technical capacity; and manual workers who are employed to do the physical work for which the council is responsible. Senior staff appointments are usually made at the instance of the committee or committees particularly concerned; most

¹For further information, see COI reference pamphlet RF.P. 5505, *Local Government in Britain*.

junior appointments are made by heads of departments, who are also responsible for engaging the manual labour required.

There is no single local government service on a national basis but movement of officers between one council and another occurs frequently. An officer in local government service may apply for an improved position under any local authority in the country. This freedom of movement is welcomed by employing councils no less than by the officers themselves, for it gives councils a wide choice in making their appointments, and means that fresh minds may be brought to a council's business.

OTHER PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT

The administrative and clerical staff of certain public bodies operating in the services described in this pamphlet are engaged by them according to their requirements, and are neither civil servants nor local government officers. Examples are the employees of the Hospital Service of the National Health Service and of bodies such as the Arts Council.

APPENDIX I

FURTHER DEVELOPMENTS UP TO THE END OF 1963

The following are the most important of the developments in the social services which occurred towards the end of 1963, after the preparation of the preceding text of this pamphlet:

Social Security

Proposals were announced by the Government in December 1963 to:

- (1) raise the upper family allowances age-limit for children at school or apprentices (see p. 10) to 19; the same rules will apply to child dependants of national insurance beneficiaries (p. 14) and industrial injuries beneficiaries (p. 16);
- (2) raise the total amount payable to a widowed mother for each child (p. 14 and p. 16) to £1. 17s. 6d. inclusive of any family allowance payable;
- (3) increase the amount payable for war widows' children (p. 17) by 7s. 6d. for each.

Education

Two important reports on the educational system were published late in 1963: *Half Our Future* (HMSO 8s. 6d.), a report by the Central Advisory Council (England) on the education between the ages of 13 and 16 of pupils of average or less ability (the Newsom Report); and *Higher Education* (Cmnd. 2154, HMSO 15s.), a report by a committee appointed to review the pattern of full-time education in Great Britain and advise on its long-term development (the Robbins Report). Both reports were welcomed by the Government, which has announced an increase in the school building programme and school leaving age (p. 39) and adopted the Robbins target of 197,000 full-time students in higher education in 1967-68 and 328,000 to 392,000 in 1973-74 (pp. 41-42). Action on a number of recommendations in the two reports is still under consideration.

New Towns

It is proposed to establish an additional new town (p. 54) at Washington, on the southern fringe of Tyneside, according to statements on Government policy in *The North East* (Cmnd. 2206, HMSO 5s.) published in November 1963.

Industrial Training

Legislation is proposed in the Industrial Training Bill (second reading debate *Hansard* 20.11.63, Col. 1001) giving the Minister of Labour (p. 69) statutory power to set up boards with responsibility for all aspects of training in particular industries, with a duty to ensure the amount of training in their industry is sufficient, and to make recommendations on the type of training and associated further education needed for different occupations. The boards will have power to provide training themselves or to arrange for its provision.

After-care

The Government has announced (*Hansard* 3.12.63, Col. 981) that it accepts the recommendations from the Advisory Council on the Treatment of Offenders in

their Report on the Organisation of After-Care (HMSO 5s. 6d.), the most important of them being the amalgamation of compulsory and voluntary after-care (p. 82) to be operated by an expanded and re-organised 'probation and after-care service'.

Legal Aid

Legislation is proposed in the Legal Aid Bill (second reading debate *Hansard* 6.12.63, Col. 1591) to empower the courts to order the payment out of the legal aid fund (p. 87) and its Scottish counterpart, of the costs incurred by successful unassisted opponents of legally assisted persons.

APPENDIX II

SOCIAL SERVICE DEPARTMENTS AND ORGANISATIONS

SOCIAL SECURITY

Government Departments

Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance, 10 John Adam Street, London, W.C.2.

Ministry of Labour and National Insurance, Stormont, Belfast.

National Assistance Board, 6 St. Andrew's Street, London, E.C.4.

National Assistance Board for Northern Ireland, Fermanagh House, Ommeau Avenue, Belfast.

Registrar of Non-Participating Employments, Government Buildings, Monck Street, London, S.W.1.

Other Bodies

British Legion, 49 Pall Mall, London, S.W.1.

HEALTH

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Ministry of Health, Alexander Fleming House, Elephant and Castle, London, S.E.1.

Central Council for Health Education, Tavistock House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

Scottish Home and Health Department, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.

Scottish Council for Health Education, 29 Queen Street, Edinburgh 2.

General Board of Control for Scotland, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.

Ministry of Health and Local Government, Stormont, Belfast.

General Dental Council, 44 Hallam Street, London, W.1.

General Medical Council, 44 Hallam Street, London, W.1.

General Nursing Council for England and Wales, 23 Portland Place, London, W.1.

General Optical Council, 41 Harley Street, London, W.1.

General Register Office, Somerset House, Strand, London, W.C.2. and New Register House, Edinburgh 2.

Registrar-General for Scotland, New Register House, Edinburgh 2.

Medical Research Council, 20 Park Crescent, London, W.1.

Other Bodies

King Edward's Hospital Fund for London, 34 King Street, London, E.C.2.

National Association for Maternal and Child Welfare, Tavistock House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.

National Association for Mental Health, 39 Queen Anne Street, London, S.W.1.

National League of Hospital Friends, 23 Knightsbridge, London, S.W.1.

Nuffield Provincial Hospitals Trust, Nuffield Lodge, Regent's Park, London, N.W.1.

Royal Society for the Promotion of Health, 90 Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.

Royal Sanitary Association for Scotland, 150 St. Vincent Street, Glasgow.

FAMILY WELFARE

Government Departments

Home Office, Children's Department, Thames House South, Millbank, London, S.W.1.

Ministry of Home Affairs, Stormont, Belfast.

Scottish Education Department, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.

Other Bodies

Catholic Marriage Advisory Council, 15 Lansdowne Road, London, W.11.

Church Army, 55 Bryanston Street, London, W.1.

Church of England Social Welfare Council, Church House, Dean's Yard, London, S.W.1.

Church of Scotland Committee on Social Service, 121 George Street, Edinburgh 2.

Family Service Units, 25 St. Mary's Grove, London, N.1.

Family Welfare Association, 296 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.

National Adoption Society, 47A, Manchester Street, London, W.1.

National Bureau for Co-operation in Child Care, 29 Fitzroy Square, London, W.1.

National Children Adoption Association, 71 Knightsbridge, London, S.W.1.

National Council for the Unmarried Mother and Her Child, 255 Kentish Town Road, London, N.W.5.

National Council of Association Children's Homes, c/o Old Town Hall, Kennington, London, S.E.11.

National Council of Family Casework Agencies, 296 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.

National Marriage Guidance Council, 58 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.

NSPCC (National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children), 15 Leicester Square, London, W.C.2.

Royal Scottish Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, 16 Melville Street, Edinburgh 3.

Scottish Council for the Unmarried Mother and Her Child, 30 Castle Street, Edinburgh 2.

Scottish Marriage Guidance Council, 44 Queen Street, Edinburgh 2.

EDUCATION

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Ministry of Education, Curzon Street, London, W.1.

Scottish Education Department, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 1.

Ministry of Education (Northern Ireland), Netherleigh, Massey Avenue, Stormont, Belfast.

National Council for Technological Awards, 9 Cavendish Square, London, W.1.

University Grants Committee, 38 Belgrave Square, London, S.W.1.

Other Bodies

Advisory Centre for Education, 57 Russell Street, Cambridge.

Association of Convent Schools, Convent of the Sacred Heart, Roehampton, London, S.W.15.

Association of Education Committees, 10 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.

Association of Governing Bodies of Girls' Public Schools, c/o Women's Employment Federation, 251 Brompton Road, London, S.W.3.

Association of Governing Bodies of Public Schools (Boys), Dormy House,
 Longdown Lane South, Epsom, Surrey.
 Association of Northern Ireland Education Committees, c/o Belfast Education
 Authority, 40 Academy Street, Belfast.
 Association of Technical Institutions, c/o The Polytechnic, Regent Street,
 London, W.1.
 British Association for Commerical & Industrial Education (BACIE), 26A
 Buckingham Palace Road, London, S.W.1.
 British Council, 65 Davies Street, London, W.1.
 Catholic Education Council for England and Wales, 27 Great James Street,
 Bedford Row, London, W.C.1.
 Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges, 55A Duke Street,
 Grosvenor Square, London, W.1.
 Conference of Educational Associations, Conference Office, The College of
 Preceptors, 2 & 3 Bloomsbury Square, London, W.C.1.
 Educational Centres Association, Walthamstow Educational Settlement, Green-
 leaf Road, London, E.17.
 Educational Foundation for Visual Aids, 33 Queen Anne Street, London W.1.
 Educational Interchange Council, 43 Parliament Street, London, S.W.1.
 Fellowship of Independent Schools, 5 New Quebec Street, London, W.1.
 National Committee for Visual Aids to Education, 33 Queen Anne Street,
 London, W.1.
 National Federation of Community Associations, 26 Bedford Square, London,
 W.C.1.
 National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, 79 Wim-
 pole Street, London, W.1.
 National Froebel Foundation, 2 Manchester Square, London, W.1.
 National Institute of Adult Education, 35 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.
 The National Society, 69 Great Peter Street, London, S.W.1.
 Nursery School Association of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 89 Stamford
 Street, London, S.E.1.
 Parents' National Educational Union, Murray House, Vandon Street, London,
 W.1.
 Scottish Council for Research in Education, 46 Moray Place, Edinburgh.
 Special Schools Association, Secretary, Miss Vaughan, Hallmoor School,
 Lea Hall, Birmingham.
 Universities Council for Adult Education, c/o Department of Adult Education,
 Bristol, 8.
 Workers' Educational Association, Temple House, 27 Portman Square, London,
 W.1.

YOUTH SERVICE

Government Departments — *As for Education, above*

Other Bodies

British Schools Exploring Society, Vincent House, Vincent Square, London,
 S.W.1.
 Central Council of Physical Recreation, 6 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 King George's Jubilee Trust, 166 Piccadilly, London, W.1.
 National Playing Fields Association, 71 Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
 Outward Bound Trust, 123 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
 Scottish Council of Physical Recreation, 4 Queensferry Street, Edinburgh 2.

Scottish Standing Conference of Voluntary Youth Organisations, 10 Alva Street, Edinburgh 2.
Scottish Youth Hostels Association, 7 Bruntsfield Crescent, Edinburgh 10.
Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
Youth Hostels Association, Trevelyan House, 8 St. Stephen's Hill, St. Albans, Herts.

PLANNING AND HOUSING

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Ministry of Housing and Local Government, Whitehall, London, S.W.1.
Department of Health for Scotland, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh.
Ministry of Health and Local Government, Stormont, Belfast.
Scottish Special Housing Association, 15/21 Palmerston Place, Edinburgh.
Northern Ireland Housing Trust, 12 Hope Street, Belfast 12.

Other Bodies

The Housing Centre, 13 Suffolk Street, Pall Mall, London, S.W.1.
National Federation of Housing Societies, 12 Suffolk Street, Pall Mall, London, S.W.1.

EMPLOYMENT

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Ministry of Labour, 8 St. James's Square, London, S.W.1.
Ministry of Labour and National Insurance, Stormont, Belfast.
Remploy Ltd., 25 Buckingham Gate, London, S.W.1.

Other Bodies

British Employers' Confederation, 36 Smith Square, S.W.1.
British Institute of Management, Institute of Personnel Management, Management House, 80 Fetter Lane, London, E.C.4.
Industrial Welfare Society, 48 Bryanston Square, London, W.1.
Trades Union Congress, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.1.

REHABILITATION AND WELFARE

Government Departments — *As for Health, above*

Other Bodies

British Council for Rehabilitation, Tavistock House (South), Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
British Council for the Welfare of Spastics, 13 Suffolk Street, London, S.W.1.
British Diabetic Association, 152 Harley Street, London, W.1.
British Epilepsy Association, 27 Nassau Street, London, W.1.
British Red Cross Society, 12 Grosvenor Crescent, London, S.W.1.
British Rheumatic Association, 11 Beaumont Street, London, W.1.
Central Council for the Disabled, 34 Eccleston Square, London, S.W.1.
Chest and Heart Association, Tavistock House (North), Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
Infantile Paralysis Fellowship, Rugby Chambers, Great James Street, London, W.C.1.

British Association of Residential Settlements, c/o Toynbee Hall, 28 Commercial Street, London, E.1.
 Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, Comely Park House, Dunfermline, Fife, Scotland.
 Children's Country Holidays Fund, 18 Buckingham Street, London, W.C.2.
 Church of England Social Welfare Council, Church House, Dean's Yard, London, S.W.1.
 Church of Scotland Committee on Social Service, 121 George Street, Edinburgh 2.
 Citizens' Advice Bureaux, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 Family Planning Association, 64 Sloane Street, London, S.W.1.
 Friends of the Poor, 42 Ebury Street, London, S.W.1.
 Jewish Board of Guardians, 74A Charlotte Street, London, W.1.
 National Council of Social Service, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Federation of Community Associations, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 Nuffield Foundation, Nuffield Lodge, Regent's Park, London, N.W.1.
 Pilgrim Trust, 2 Great Peter Street, London, S.W.1.
 Salvation Army, 73 Queen Victoria Street, London, E.C.4.
 Scottish Council of Social Service, 10 Alva Street, Edinburgh 2.
 Society of Friends, Friends House, Euston Road, London, N.W.1.
 Society of St. Vincent de Paul, 54 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
 Soldiers', Sailors' and Airmen's Families' Association, 23 Queen Anne's Gate, London, S.W.1.
 Women's Group on Public Welfare, 26 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 Women's Voluntary Service, 41 Tothill Street, London, S.W.1.

STAFFING

Government Departments and Official Bodies

Civil Service Commission, 23 Savile Row, London, W.1.
 National Council for Training in Social Work *also*
 National Council for the Training of Health Visitors, 1-5 Princes Gate, London, S.W.7.
 Northern Ireland Civil Service Commission, Stormont, Belfast.
 Probation Advisory and Training Board, Home Office, Whitehall, London, S.W.4.
 Scottish Probation Advisory and Training Council, St. Andrew's House, Edinburgh 2.
 Treasury, Great George Street, London, S.W.1.

Other Bodies

Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
 Association of Charity Officers, c/o GBI, 58 Victoria Street, London, S.W.1.
 Association of Children's Officers, Children's Department, New North Road, Exeter.
 Association of Education Officers, c/o County Education Officers, 14 St. Thomas Street, Liverpool 1.
 Association of Education Officers (Northern Ireland), 1 Wellington Place, Belfast.
 Association of General and Family Case Workers, 296 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.
 Association of Mental Health Workers, c/o NAMH, 39 Queen Anne Street, London, W.1.

Association of Moral Welfare Workers, 17 Osney Lane, Oxford.
 Association of Occupational Therapists, 252 Brompton Road, London, S.W.3.
 Association of Principals of Technical Institutions, c/o Technical College,
 Dudley, Worcestershire.
 Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, 1 Park Crescent, London, W.1.
 Association of Public Health Inspectors, 19 Grosvenor Place, London, S.W.1.
 Association of Social Workers of Great Britain, 63 Denison House, 296 Vauxhall
 Bridge Road, London, S.W.1.
 Association of Teachers in Colleges and Departments of Education, 53A Brewer
 Street, London, W.1.
 Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions, Hamilton House, Mabledon
 Place, London, W.C.1.
 Association of University Teachers, 21 Dawson Place, London, W.2.
 British Medical Association, BMA House, Tavistock Square, London, W.C.1.
 College of General Practitioners, 41 Cadogan Gardens, Sloane Square, London,
 S.W.3.
 Educational Institute of Scotland, 46 Moray Place, Edinburgh.
 Headmasters' Conference, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
 Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, 29 Gordon
 Square, London, W.C.1.
 Incorporated Association of Head Masters, 29 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
 Incorporated Association of Head Mistresses, 29 Gordon Square, London,
 W.C.1.
 Institute of Almoners, 42 Bedford Square, London, W.C.1.
 Institute of Home Help Organisers, 115 Blackheath Road, London, S.E.10.
 Institute of Housing, 50 Tufton Street, London, S.W.1.
 Irish National Teachers' Organisation (Northern Ireland District Office), 83 High
 Street, Belfast 1.
 Joint University Council for Social and Public Administration, 218 Sussex
 Gardens, London, W.2.
 National Association of Head Teachers, 59 Victoria Road, Surbiton, Surrey.
 National Association of Home Teachers of the Blind, c/o 24 Berkley Terrace,
 York.
 National Association of Prison Visitors, 71 Chaucer Road, Bedford.
 National Association of Local Education Authority Youth Service Officers,
 c/o Education Office, Chapel Street, Salford 3.
 National Association of Probation Officers, 2 Hobart Place, London, S.W.1.
 National Association of Schoolmasters, 59 Gordon Square, London, W.C.1.
 National Association of Youth Employment Officers, c/o Youth Employment
 Department, Education Office, Margaret Street, Birmingham 3.
 National Association of Youth Leaders and Organisers, Secretary, Mr. S. Rowe,
 4 Moxley Road, Manchester 8.
 National Institute for Social Work Training, Mary Ward Settlement, Tavistock
 Place, London, W.C.1.
 National Union of Teachers, Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London, W.C.1.
 National Union of Women Teachers, 41 Cromwell Road, London, S.W.7.
 Queen's Institute of District Nursing, 57 Lower Belgrave Street, London, S.W.1.
 Royal College of Midwives, 15 Mansfield Street, London, S.W.1.
 Royal College of Nursing, 1A Henrietta Place, London, W.1.
 Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, 58 Queen Anne Street,
 London, W.1.
 Royal College of Physicians, 12 Pall Mall East, London, S.W.1.
 Royal College of Physicians, 9 Queen Street, Edinburgh 2.
 Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh, Nicolson Street, Edinburgh 8.

Royal College of Surgeons of England, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London, W.C.2.
Royal Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons of Glasgow, 242 St. Vincent Street,
Glasgow, C.2.
Royal Institute of British Architects, 66 Portland Place, London, W.1.
Royal Institute of Public Health and Hygiene, 28 Portland Place, London, W.1.
Royal Sanitary Association of Scotland, 150 St. Vincent Street, Glasgow, C.2.
Royal Society for the Promotion of Health, 90 Buckingham Palace Road,
London, S.W.1.
Society of Housing Managers, 13 Suffolk Street, Pall Mall, London, S.W.1.
Society of Medical Officers of Health, Tavistock House (South), Tavistock
Square, London, W.C.1.
Society of Neighbourhood Workers, 9 Dale Avenue, Hassocks, Sussex.
Ulster Teachers' Union, Imperial Buildings, 72 High Street, Belfast 1.
Women Public Health Officers' Association, 36 Eccleston Square, London,
S.W.1.

APPENDIX III

SELECTED READING LIST¹

GENERAL			s.	d.
BRUCE, M. The Coming of the Welfare State	<i>Batsford</i>	1961	35	0
COLE, G. D. H. British Social Services. Rev. edn. For the British Council	<i>Longmans Green</i>	1959	2	6
HALL, M. PENELOPE. The Social Services of Modern England Fifth edn.	<i>Routledge & Kegan Paul</i>	1960	28	0
HAYNES, A. H. The Practitioner's Handbook to the Social Services	<i>Wright & Sons</i>	1955	9	6
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF SOCIAL SERVICE. Public Social Services: Handbook of Information. Rev. edn.	<i>NCSS</i>	1961	15	0
Voluntary Social Services. Rev. edn.	<i>NCSS</i>	1960	10	6
POLITICAL AND ECONOMIC PLANNING. Family Needs and the Social Services	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1961	30	0
TITMUSS, R. M. Essays on the Welfare State	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1958	20	0
Social Work in Britain. RF.P.4470	<i>COI</i>	1961		free
SOCIAL SECURITY				
Annual Reports:				
Ministry of Pensions and National Insurance. For 1962. Cmnd. 2069	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	10	0
National Assistance Board. For 1962. Cmnd. 2078	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	5	6
National Assistance Board for Northern Ireland. For 1961	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1962	2	6
War Pensioners. For 1962	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	7	0
Social Security in Britain. RF.P.5455	<i>COI</i>	1962		free
HEALTH SERVICES				
LINDSEY, ALMONT. Socialised Medicine in England and Wales	<i>University of North Carolina/OUP</i>	1962	45	0
Review of Medical Services in Great Britain (Porritt Report)	<i>Social Assay</i>	1963	18	0
Annual Reports:				
Central Health Services Council. For 1962	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	2	6
Department of Health for Scotland. For 1962. Cmnd. 1996	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	5	6
Report on Health and Local Government Administration. For 1961. Cmd. 444	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1962	7	0
Ministry of Health				
Part I. Health and Welfare Services. For 1962. Cmnd. 2062	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	13	0
Part II. On the State of the Public Health. For 1961. Cmnd. 1856	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	13	6

¹Publications for which no price is given are known to be out of print. COI reference pamphlets listed in the bibliography as obtainable free of charge are available to the public in the United Kingdom at a small charge.

			s.	d.
The Development of Community Care. Cmnd. 1973				
	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	24	0
A Hospital Plan for England and Wales. Cmnd. 1604				
	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	18	6
Hospital Plan for Scotland. Cmnd. 1602	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	2	6
Health Services in Britain. RF.P.5154	<i>COI</i>	1962	free	

FAMILY WELFARE

Care of Children under 5 years. Memorandum by the Home Office	<i>HMSO</i>	1955		6
Children in the Care of Local Authorities in England and Wales (Annual statistical summary). Cmnd. 1599	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	1	3
Committee on Children and Young Persons (Ingleby Committee) Report. Cmnd. 1191	<i>HMSO</i>	1960	8	0
Prevention of Neglect of Children. Report of Committee of Scottish Advisory Council on Child Care	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	1	6
Work of the Children's Department of the Home Office: Eighth Report	<i>HMSO</i>	1961	7	0
Children in Britain (COI). RF.P.5366	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	5	0

EDUCATION

DENT, H. C. The Educational System of England and Wales	<i>University of London Press</i>	1961	15	0
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF ADULT EDUCATION. Adult Education in the United Kingdom: a Directory of Organisations. Rev. edn.	<i>NIAE</i>	1962	5	0
SMITH, W. O. LESTER. Education: An Introductory Survey	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1957	3	6
Year Book of the Universities of the Commonwealth	<i>The Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth</i>	1962	105	0
Annual Reports of:				
Ministry of Education:				
Education 1900-1950. Cmd. 8244	<i>HMSO</i>	1951	9	0
Education in 1962. Cmnd. 1900	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	8	6
Ministry of Education for Northern Ireland:				
Report for 1961-62. Cmd. 450	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1962	8	6
Scottish Education Department:				
Education in Scotland, 1962. Cmnd. 1975	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	8	6
University Grants Committee, Annual Returns from Universities and University Colleges in receipt of Treasury Grant. 1960-61. Cmnd. 1855	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	5	6
Education in Britain. RF.P.4751	<i>COI</i>	1960	free	
Technical Education in Britain. RF.P.5169	<i>COI</i>	1962	free	
Universities in Britain. R.5520	<i>COI</i>	1963	free	

YOUTH SERVICES *see also* Annual Reports under EDUCATION

The Youth Service in England and Wales (Albemarle Report). Cmnd. 929	<i>HMSO</i>	1960	6	0
Youth Services in Britain. R.5506	<i>COI</i>	1963	free	

PLANNING AND HOUSING		s. d.	
ABERCROMBIE, Sir PATRICK. Town and Country Planning. Third edn.	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1960	7 6
ABRAHAM, HAROLD M. <i>Editor</i> . Britain's National Parks	<i>Country Life</i>	1960	25 0
GIBBERD, FREDERICK. Town Design. Third edn.	<i>Architectural Press</i>	1959	73 6
HEAP, DESMOND. An Outline of Planning Law. Fourth edn.	<i>Sweet & Maxwell</i>	1963	32 6
KEEBLE, LEWIS. Principles and Practice of Town and Country Planning. Second edn.	<i>Estates Gazette</i>	1959	50 0
LONDON COUNTY COUNCIL. London Plan, First Review	<i>LCC</i>	1960	50 0
———The Planning of a New Town	<i>LCC</i>	1961	50 0
NICHOLSON, E. M. Britain's Nature Reserves	<i>Country Life</i>	1958	30 0
TOWN AND COUNTRY PLANNING ASSOCIATION. Town and Country Planning Monthly	<i>T and CPA</i>		2 0
Annual Reports:			
Ministry of Housing and Local Government: For 1962. Cmd. 1976	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	4 6
Scottish Development Department: For 1962. Cmd. 2004	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	8 0
Ministry of Health and Local Government (Northern Ireland): For 1960. Cmd. 429	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1961	5 6
Development Corporations of the New Towns:			
England and Wales. For 1961–62	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	27 6
Scotland. For 1961–62	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	10 0
National Parks Commission. For 1961–62	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	6 6
Nature Conservancy. For 1961–62	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	10 0
Belfast Regional Survey and Plan: Recommendations and Conclusions. Cmd. 451	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1962	3 6
The Green Belts	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	4 0
Nature Conservation in Northern Ireland (Report of the Committee approved by the Minister of Home Affairs). Cmd. 448	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1962	1 6
Planning Bulletins:			
1. Town Centres: Approach to Renewal	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	5 0
2. Residential Areas: Higher Densities	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	2 0
3. Town Centres: Cost and Control of Redevelopment	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	4 0
Councils and their Houses: Management of Estates			
	<i>HMSO</i>	1959	2 6
Flats and Houses 1958: Design Economy	<i>HMSO</i>	1958	10 0
Homes for Today and Tomorrow	<i>HMSO</i>	1961	4 0
Housing in England and Wales. Cmd. 1290	<i>HMSO</i>	1961	1 0
Housing. Cmd. 2050	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	1 3
———Design Bulletins Nos. 1–7	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	1 3
		to	to
		1963	8 6
Housing Policy, Scotland. Cmd. 8997	<i>HMSO</i>	1953	6
Housing Return, England and Wales. Quarterly Paper	<i>HMSO</i>		1 3
Housing Return, Scotland. Quarterly Cmd. Paper	<i>HMSO</i>		1 6
Housing Return for Northern Ireland	<i>Belfast, HMSO</i>	1963	1 9
London. Employment: Housing: Land. Cmd. 1952	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	2 0

The Rent Act and You:

Questions and Answers for Landlord and Tenant (England and Wales)	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	6
A Simple Guide for Scotland	<i>HMSO</i>	1957	6
Town and Country Planning in Britain. RF.P.5355	<i>COI</i>	1962	free
The New Towns of Britain. RF.P.4506	<i>COI</i>	1961	free
Housing in Britain. RF.P.4500	<i>COI</i>	1961	free

EMPLOYMENT

Ministry of Labour Gazette. <i>Monthly</i>	<i>HMSO</i>		2 6
Services for the Disabled	<i>HMSO</i>	1960	6 6
Work of the Youth Employment Service, 1956-59	<i>HMSO</i>	1959	2 6
Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain. RF.P.4972	<i>COI</i>	1962	free
Labour Relations and Conditions of Work. RF.P.5120	<i>COI</i>	1962	free

REHABILITATION AND WELFARE

Annual Reports of:

Department of Health for Scotland for 1962. Cmnd. 1996	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	5 6
Ministry of Health for 1962. Part I: Health and Welfare Services. Cmnd. 2062	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	13 0
The Development of Community Care. Cmnd. 1973	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	24 0
Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain. RF.P.4972	<i>COI</i>	1962	free

TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

ELKIN, W. The English Penal System	<i>Penguin Books</i>	1957	3 6
GRÜNHUT, M. Juvenile Offenders before the Courts	<i>Oxford University Press</i>	1956	25 0
KING, J. <i>Editor</i> . The Probation Service	<i>Butterworth</i>	1958	25 0
ST. JOHN J. Probation: The Second Chance	<i>Vista</i>	1961	25 0
Annual Reports:			
Commissioners of Prisons. For 1962. Cmnd. 2030	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	8 6
Council of the Central After-Care Association. For 1961	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	2 0
Prisons in Scotland. For 1961. Cmnd. 1772	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	4 0
Penal Practice in a Changing Society. Cmnd. 645	<i>HMSO</i>	1959	2 6
Prisons and Borstals. Fourth edn.	<i>HMSO</i>	1960	7 0
Report of the Committee on Children and Young Persons (Ingleby Report). Cmnd. 1191	<i>HMSO</i>	1960	8 0
Report of the Departmental Committee on the Probation Service. Cmnd. 1650	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	10 0
Work of the Children's Department of the Home Office. Eighth Report	<i>HMSO</i>	1961	7 0
The Treatment of Offenders in Britain. RF.P.4414	<i>COI</i>	1960	free

LEGAL AID AND ADVICE			s.	d.
Annual Reports:				
The Law Society on the Legal Aid and Advice Act. For 1961-62	<i>HMSO</i>	1963	6	6
The Law Society of Scotland on the Legal Aid Scheme. For 1961-62	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	3	6
Report of the Working Party on Legal Aid in Criminal Proceedings	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	3	6
VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS				
BEVERIDGE, <i>Lord</i> . Voluntary Action	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1948	16	0
——— and WELLS, A. F. <i>Editors</i> . The Evidence for Voluntary Action	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1949	16	0
MORRIS, MARY. Voluntary Organisations and Social Progress	<i>Gollancz</i>	1955	18	0
NATIONAL COUNCIL OF SOCIAL SERVICE. Advising the Citizen (Citizen's Advice Bureaux)	<i>NCSS</i>	1961	5	0
——— Annual Reports	<i>NCSS</i>		1	6
——— Voluntary Social Services: Handbook of Information and Directory of Organisations. Rev. edn.	<i>NCSS</i>	1960	10	6
Charity Commissioners for England and Wales: Report for 1961	<i>HMSO</i>	1962	3	0
The Story of the WVS	<i>HMSO</i>	1959	3	6
STAFFING				
MACKENZIE, W. J. M. and GROVE, J. W. Central Administration in Britain	<i>Longmans</i>	1957	30	0
Training and Employment in Social Work	<i>National Council of Social Service and Women's Employment Federation</i>	1963	5	0
WARREN, J. H. The Local Government Service	<i>Allen & Unwin</i>	1952	18	0
The British Civil Service. R.4985	<i>COI</i>	1961	free	
Central Government in Britain. RF.P.5564	<i>COI</i>	1963	free	
Local Government in Britain. RF.P.5505	<i>COI</i>	1962	free	
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